THE NATURE AND SOURCES OF JOB SATISFACTION AMONG SCHOOL COUNSELORS IN THE AMERICAN SCHOOL COUNSELOR ASSOCIATION

By

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This study was designed to determine the level and sources of job satisfaction of school counselors and the relationship between their job satisfaction and variables such as school level. It was also designed to learn if job satisfaction could be predicted from factors such as tenure and sex.

Job satisfaction surveys were mailed to a random sample of 1500 counselors in the American School Counselor Association. After screening the 779 responses, 686 were deemed usable and constituted the final sample. The survey consisted of a personal and employment data section and the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ). The MSQ measured 20 sources of job satisfaction as well as general job satisfaction.

Several statistical procedures were used to analyze the data, including frequency distributions, Pearson's

correlation technique, analyses of variance, and multiple regression analyses. It was determined that (a) the school counselors were moderately satisfied with their jobs; (b) the school counselors were satisfied by intrinsic factors such as achievement; (c) high school level counselors experienced less satisfaction than those at the elementary or middle/junior high school levels; (d) there was a weak but statistically significant ($p \leq .05$) positive relationship between age and job satisfaction but not between salary and job satisfaction; and (e) job expectations, job challenge, and counselors' perception of the adequacy of their training were predictors of job satisfaction.

It was observed that the school counselors had concerns of role overload, ambiguity, and conflict. It was suggested that the ASCA could help to promote satisfaction among school counselors by intensifying its efforts of clarifying the school counselors' role to the public. It was also suggested that counselor educators, by developing realistic training and continuing education programs, could help to foster job satisfaction among school counselors.

CHAPTER I
INTRODUCTION

Although Geist (1963) noted that very few professionals were dissatisfied with or wanted to change their jobs, today, after perusing many educational journals, one is apt to conclude that this is not the case with school counselors. For example, Wells and Ritter (1979) noted that school counselors were suffering a loss of personal and professional satisfaction due to their inability to meet the needs of their students and school systems. Birashk and Kazckowski (1984) observed that school counseling was, for many, a mere stepping stone to bigger and better employment prospects. When one considers these observations, the result is a feeling of foreboding for the school counseling profession.

School counseling is an "American phenomenon" (Wrenn, 1962) that began in the early part of the twentieth century. As the profession grew, the American School Counselor Association (ASCA) was formed (Herr, 1979) and this organization is now regarded as the official "voice" of the profession. In its role statement ("The Practice of Guidance," 1981), the ASCA explained that the role of the school counselor is to create a learning environment where the psychological well-being of each student is developed and promoted. To accomplish this, counselors perform the functions of individual and group guidance, individual

and group counseling, and consultation with parents and teachers. However, since the psychological needs of students are related to their developmental stages, school counselors at each educational level (i.e., elementary, middle/junior high, and senior high school) perform interventions that are appropriate for each student's developmental stage.

Although the ASCA has made an attempt to define the school counselors' role, many argue that they are not performing the duties for which they were trained. This seems to be endemic to the counseling profession for, as Boy and Pine (1980) noted, "the professional role envisioned and internalized during counselor preparation seems inoperable in the real world, and many counselors have become personally and professionally discouraged" (p. 161).

Addressing the problems of school counselors, Day and Sparacio (1980) hypothesized that several factors were preventing them from performing duties consistent with their training. These impediments include (a) the absence of legal definitions of school counseling or a regulatory body for the practice of school counseling; (b) the lack of understanding on the part of parents, students, and other school personnel of the competencies of the school counselors; (c) inadequate and/or unrealistic school counselor training; and (d) the failure of school counselors to define their roles clearly. As a result of these barriers to effective school counselor performance, Day and

Sparacio believed that school counselors were experiencing dissatisfaction with their jobs.

Statement of the Problem

There is a common belief that there is a high level of job dissatisfaction among school counselors and that this is affecting their effectiveness in the schools (Wells & Ritter, 1979). However, this view seems to be perpetuated by many persons who are not currently involved in the practice of school counseling and little has been done to determine school counselors' views. Therefore, there exists a need to determine school counselors' level of satisfaction with their jobs.

Purpose of the Study

There is a paucity of empirical literature that takes a comprehensive approach to describing the proportion of school counselors who are satisfied with their careers as well as the factors that contribute to their job satisfaction. Therefore, data were gathered to describe both the levels and sources of job satisfaction among school counselors. Additionally, the relationships between job satisfaction and variables such as grade level of school, monthly salaries, and ages were examined.

Another purpose of the study was to determine if job satisfaction could be predicted from factors such as counselor-student ratios, tenure, and level of education.

General Research Questions

Seven general questions were addressed in this study:

1. What is the level of job satisfaction among school counselors who are members of the American School Counselor Association?

2. What are the sources of job satisfaction among school counselors who are members of the American School Counselor Association?

3. Are there differences in the sources of job satisfaction among school counselors in elementary, middle/junior high, and senior high schools?

4. Is school counselor satisfaction related to personal variables such as age and monthly salaries?

5. Can school counselor job satisfaction be predicted from variables such as level of employing school, sex, level of education, school setting, control of school, and involvement in professional organizations?

6. Can job satisfaction be predicted from factors such as occupational and job tenure, counselor-student ratios, percentage of time spent on specific duties (e.g., counseling, consulting, and guidance) each week, and school counselors' perceptions of the degree of job challenge, adequacy of educational training, and job expectations?

Need for the Study

What are school counselors' perceptions of their jobs? Are school counselors satisfied or dissatisfied with their profession? A limited amount of empirical data is available

to answer these questions. The studies of school counselors' reactions to their jobs can be separated into three categories: studies of occupational burnout, occupational stress, and job satisfaction.

Addressing the phenomenon of occupational burnout, several authors have presented an alarming picture of burnout among counselors (Boy & Pine, 1980; Savicki & Cooley, 1982; Warnath & Shelton, 1976; Watkins, 1983; Welch, Medeiros, & Tate, 1982). Although none of these writers present data to support their observations, they have contributed to the prevailing notion that a high level of burnout is rampant among this professional group. Additionally, although writers do not specifically address school counselors, it has often been concluded that high levels of burnout exist among school counselors since they are in a "helping" profession. However, after reviewing current research it was concluded that this view may be overstated (Cummings & Nall, 1982, 1983; Lynch, 1981; Pierson & Archambault, 1984).

In a national survey of the ASCA's members conducted by Lynch (1981), 60% of the respondents indicated that they were not very anxious. This study was conducted to determine (a) sources of job stress, (b) activities used by school counselors to reduce stress, and (c) physical and mental health problems related to stress. In the study stress was used synonymously with burnout and was ascertained by a questionnaire developed by Lynch. Lynch

attributed the finding of low levels of school counselor burnout to the facts that school counselors are not always in as stressful situations as teachers and the school counselors' training which prepared them for dealing with stress. Although the results of the study suggested that school counselors do not experience high levels of burnout, it was not well documented and so its results must be considered tentatively.

The findings of Pierson and Archambault (1984) were consistent with those of Lynch (1981). Pierson and Archambault observed that school counselors, like teachers and other student personnel workers in Connecticut's public schools, experienced only moderate levels of burnout and role stress. To measure burnout, the Maslach Burnout Inventory was used while the Role Questionnaire was used to determine role stress. Of all the groups, school counselors indicated the highest levels of role ambiguity on the Role Questionnaire. This finding is also similar to that of Day and Sparacio (1980) who indicated that the roles of school counselors were not clear-cut. It should be noted, however, that the Pierson and Archambault study was regional, and so it may be limited in generalizability.

In another study of burnout, Cummings and Nall (1982) sought to determine if school counselor burnout was influenced by school administrators' leadership styles. After surveying 300 randomly selected school counselors in eastern Iowa, they found that those with administrators who used authoritarian leadership styles tended to report higher

levels of burnout than did school counselors whose administrators used a participative style of leadership. Although this study may be helpful to administrators who want to help school counselors avoid burnout, the validity of these results is limited as burnout was determined by a single question on the survey.

It has been noted that some investigations of school counselors' reactions to their jobs are studies of occupational stress. One such study was conducted by Butcke, Moracco, and McEwen (1984), who surveyed 550 members of the ASCA using the Counselor Occupational Stress Inventory. The aim of this well-designed study was to determine the factors that contributed to school counselors' job stress. Six sources of stress were identified from reports of 410 respondents. These were (a) lack of decision-making authority, (b) financial security, (c) nonprofessional duties, (d) professional job overload, (e) school counselor-teacher relationships, and (f) school counselor-principal relationships. While this study did provide information about sources of school counselor stress, it also gave credence to the popular view that counseling is a very stressful occupation because the authors did not report what percentage of their sample was experiencing stress. Therefore, it could be construed that all school counselors in this study were suffering from stress. In extrapolating from this, it could be perceived that all school counselors are stressed.

In addition to examining occupational burnout and stress among school counselors, some researchers have conducted job satisfaction studies to investigate school counselors reactions to their jobs. For example, Wiggins (1984) found a significant relationship between job satisfaction and congruence between school counselors' personality codes on Holland's Vocational Preference Inventory and the school counselors' occupational code (SIA) in the Occupations Finder. Job satisfaction was measured by the Task-Hygiene Job Satisfaction Blank (designed by Wiggins) which was mailed to 200 school counselors in the eastern states. Results from 123 respondents indicated a moderate level of job satisfaction among school counselors and that those with congruent Holland codes were more satisfied than their counterparts with incongruent codes. Although limited to a regional sample, this study lends support to the belief that job satisfaction is an interaction between the worker and the work environment.

Although the studies of school counselor burnout and occupational stress are more abundant than job satisfaction studies, they do not provide much information about school counselors' reactions to their jobs. Additionally, the few existing studies of school counselor satisfaction have used varying measures of job satisfaction and regional samples in addressing the topic. Hence, the results from these studies are often contradictory and of questionable generalizability. It should also be noted that existing studies tend to treat school counselors as a homogenous group, disregarding

differences that may occur as a result of serving student populations of differing age groups. Thus, there is a need for comprehensive studies of job satisfaction among school counselors.

One approach to a comprehensive study of job satisfaction is to use a conceptual base upon which to build the research questions. Therefore, the theory of work adjustment (Dawis & Lofquist, 1984) was used to provide a framework for this study of school counselor job satisfaction. Dawis and Lofquist (1984) present the idea that job satisfaction is the result of the interaction between the requirements of both individuals and their work environments. Individuals have certain needs or reinforcer requirements that must be met by the work environment. When this occurs, job satisfaction results, and is indicated by an individual's tenure (i.e., choice to remain in the work environment). In summary, "the probability that an individual will voluntarily leave the work environment is inversely related to the individual's satisfaction" (Dawis & Lofquist, 1984, p. 60). An outgrowth of the theory of work adjustment was the development of the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ), developed by Weiss, Dawis, England, and Lofquist in 1967 and revised in 1977. This instrument measures individuals' satisfaction with aspects/facets of their jobs as well as overall job satisfaction.

Rationale for Study

After reviewing the literature on school counselors' reactions to their jobs it was concluded that many were experiencing negative reactions to their jobs (e.g., Savicki & Cooley, 1982; Warnath & Shelton, 1976). If so, school counselors could be negative influences in the lives of students and thus could impact negatively on students' psychological development. Additionally, because job dissatisfaction can be physically and psychologically debilitating, it could result in high rates of job turnover for school counselors, a result that also would be costly to schools.

If the problem of high levels of job dissatisfaction, exists among school counselors, principals and school superintendents may want to take steps to ensure satisfying environments for them. However, with little or no empirical data, it is impossible to determine the extent of the problem and the appropriate corrective steps necessary to ameliorate it. This study therefore provides an indication of not only the level of satisfaction among school counselors, but also specific factors that contribute to their satisfaction. This then might provide school administrators with a base from which they can build corrective and preventative strategies for promoting job satisfaction among school counselors.

This study also has implications for career counseling, school counselor education, and professional organizations. In career counseling, clients are aided in the process of

matching their personal characteristics with those of various jobs in order to determine a complementary combination. By identifying the satisfying elements of the school counselor's job, this study provides information that will help potential school counselors to make more realistic decisions about whether or not to become school counselors.

For admission to their programs, school counselor educators select and recruit students whom they believe will be able to be satisfied and successful in school counseling. Therefore, the more school counselor educators know about the contributors to school counselors' satisfaction, the better will be their selections. This study provides school counselor educators and students with information to facilitate their selection processes. Additionally, this information can be incorporated into professional development curricula to ensure that students are presented with a realistic picture of school counseling and therefore be forearmed with strategies to meet the demands of the profession.

Since a function of professional organizations (e.g., the ASCA) is the promotion of the welfare of its members, information from this study can be used by such organizations to develop programs that promote job satisfaction among their members.

Definition of Terms

Control of school refers to the source from which the operating funds for the school are derived. Source of control can be public (i.e., supported by local, county, state, or federal government) or private (i.e., supported by a nongovernmental agency, including religious organizations).

Counselor-student ratio is based on the number of school counselors employed in a school and the total number of students enrolled in that school. The ratio is computed by dividing the number of school counselors by the number of students.

Elementary school is an institution so designated by the school counselor respondents. In this study, the majority of respondents indicated a beginning grade of kindergarten and ending grade of six for the elementary schools in which they worked. However, in a few cases, an upper grade limit of nine was reported.

Job challenge refers to the degree to which the job presents opportunities for using problem-solving strategies as opposed to merely performing routine tasks.

Job satisfaction is a sense of gratification which "is the result of the worker's appraisal of the extent to which the work environment fulfills the individual's needs" (Dawis & Lofquist, 1984, p. 72). In this study, job satisfaction was measured by the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire.

Job tenure is the "time spent in a particular position" (Dawis & Lofquist, 1984, p. 74). In this study, it was measured in years.

Middle/junior high school is an institution so designated by the school counselor respondents. In this study, the majority of respondents indicated a beginning grade of six and an ending grade of nine for the middle/junior schools in which they worked. However, in a few cases, a beginning grade level of kindergarten and an ending grade level of 12 was reported.

Occupational tenure is the "time spent in a specific occupation irrespective of organizational membership or positions held" (Dawis & Lofquist, 1984, p.74). In this study, it was measured in years.

Professional organization is any organization comprised of individuals with similar professional interests which serves to control and maintain standards of performance within the profession, socialize newer members, and promote the welfare of its members.

School counselor is an employee of a public or private school whose main responsibilities are counseling, consultation, guidance, and other related activities.

Senior high school is an institution so designated by the school counselor respondent. In this study, the majority of school counselors indicated a beginning grade of nine and an ending grade of 12 for the senior high schools in which they worked. However, in a few cases, there was a lower limit of grade six.

Setting of school describes the size of the populace of the city in which the school is located. In this study, setting is referred to as urban (i.e., a city with population of 2,500 or more) or rural (i.e., a city with population of 2,499 or less) (U.S. Department of Commerce, 1982).

Sources of job satisfaction refer to school counselors' needs requirements as indicated on the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire.

CHAPTER II
LITERATURE REVIEW

The review of literature related to this study is presented in four sections in this chapter. The first section is an examination of the role of school counselors. The second section is a discussion of the theories of job satisfaction. A review of job satisfaction research is presented in the third section and the fourth contains a description of conditions related to job satisfaction.

The Role of School Counselors

In 1950, James Conant, then president of Harvard University, stated that "it would not be too much to say that on the success or failure of our guidance program hangs . . . the success or failure of our system of public education" (p. xi). More recently, this sentiment was echoed by Herr (1984) who argued that in order for American students to achieve excellence in school and the workplace, attention must be focused on the "emotional, values, and decision-making components that school counselors and guidance processes contribute to the overall educational mission" (p. 219). The fact that school counselors are considered important school personnel was reflected in the 1970 Gallup Poll (Elam, 1978) where 73% of all persons in the national survey indicated that they believed that school counselors were worth the added costs.

Why are school counselors considered to be such an integral part of the educational system? This can be attributed to the role they play in the nation's elementary, middle/junior, and senior high schools. Here, the aim of each school counselor is to serve the needs of the students and thereby enhance each student's educational, vocational, and psychosocial development ("Practice of Guidance," 1981). To achieve this aim, school counselors perform several roles and functions.

In the elementary school, the school counselor works with parents and teachers to ensure that the students develop positive attitudes toward school, self-esteem, good social skills, and the like. Counselors also work with other student personnel staff to identify and remediate students with developmental deficiencies and handicaps ("Practice of Guidance," 1981).

In the upper elementary grades, students are introduced to the relationship between educational choices and career planning and this concept is further developed in middle or junior high school. Counselors also help students to make the transition from elementary to middle school, through guidance activities. In consultations with teachers, school counselors help to design curricula that will help the students gain greater self-knowledge and understanding ("Practice of Guidance," 1981).

In high school, career guidance and counseling are of paramount importance as students must make career decisions in preparation for life beyond high school. As such, school

counselors assist students in assessing their interests, abilities, and so forth and in using this information to make educational and vocational plans. Counselors also work with teachers and parents in the process of helping students over the "adolescent hurdles" and to provide remediation for students with emotional and vocational problems, along with school psychologists and other members of the student personnel team ("Practice of Guidance," 1981).

Although Herr (1984) and the American School Counselor Association (ASCA) in its role statement ("Practice of Guidance," 1981) asserted that school counselors by virtue of the role they perform are assets to the educational system, some critics challenge this view. For example, Aubrey (1982) contended that "the work of school counselors entails inordinate amounts of time in clerical and administrative tasks that could just as easily be accomplished by computers or paraprofessionals at a lower cost" (p. 198). However, Whitham (1982) has suggested that one reason for the school counselors' required load of nonprofessional duties is the fact that the school counselor role was never well defined and neither was the school counselor's position in relationship to other positions in the school system.

Responding to the the need for clarifying the school counselor's role, the ASCA developed and refined position statements concerning the role and function of school counselors in elementary through postsecondary institutions, during the 1970s. In 1981, the ASCA published a role statement

that incorporated all previous statements ("Practice of Guidance," 1981). Presently, the ASCA works with principals at the local and national levels to promote understanding of and appreciation for the role of school counselors. It is also the ASCA's goal to establish relationships with the National Parent Teachers Association Council, the American Federation of Teachers, and the National Educational Association to help these groups to understand the unique position of school counselors (Minkoff & Terres, 1985).

Another reason for school counselors' preponderance with noncounseling activities was suggested by Thomas and Myrick (1984), who noted that school counselors often report that they "feel powerless in making decisions about their roles and functions" (p. 3). On the other hand, Wells and Ritter (1979) countered that school counselors need to determine their own job roles and functions. Perhaps this is more easily said than done for as Moore (1970) and Scott (1966) explained, whenever professionals become employed (rather than being self-employed), their professional autonomy is often eroded.

Another problem that employee-professionals face is role conflict (Moore, 1970). This occurs when there are differences in the demands of the employer and the employee's professional norms. In school counseling, the conflict stems from the administrators' requirements of nonprofessional activities (e.g., scheduling and maintaining attendance records) (Day & Sparacio, 1980) and the school

counselors' loyalties to the practice of counseling, consulting, and guidance. In cases where employees experience conflicts between their employers and professional beliefs, employees often rebel against the employers since they believe that professional allegiance is more important than loyalty to the employers (Scott, 1966). As a whole, school counselors have not rebelled against doing nonprofessional duties and this is probably due to the fact that school counseling is still in the process of professionalization and so school counselors are not fully united.

According to Caplow (1966), the process of professionalization involves four steps. These are (a) establishment of a professional organization, (b) name change, (c) development of a professional code of ethics, and (d) political agitation. During the first step, the group establishes a professional organization which has membership criteria that exclude unqualified personnel. An example of this is the American Medical Association which is restricted to physicians ("American Medical Association," 1954/1966). This is in contrast to the ASCA which includes, in its membership, any person "engaged in activities having an impact on a student's success and well being at school, work, and home" (Minkoff & Terres, 1985, p. 426). This open-ended membership policy could undermine the professional status of the school counselor group.

The second step in the professionalization process is a change of name. This step serves to reduce the

identification with the previous occupational status. The change process is exemplified by the medical technologists, who, prior to 1928, were called laboratory technicians. However, as they organized into a professional group, they realized that their former name vaguely described their profession and so they developed a new and descriptive name for their profession ("Medical Technology," 1966). School counselors are often referred to as school guidance counselors (e.g., Miller, 1983), but Aubrey (1982) argued that guidance and counseling convey a plethora of meanings and so are not descriptive of the school counseling profession. In fact, Aubrey claimed that the use of the terms guidance and counseling is a demonstration that the profession lacks direction. Therefore, it seems that as school counselors forge their professional identity, they will need a name that more aptly describes their profession.

The next step in the process of professionalization is the development of a code of ethics to guide the actions of the members in the professional group. This step has been accomplished by the ASCA and in its role statement ("Practice of Guidance," 1981) school counselors were exhorted to be guided by the "sound ethical practices for professional counselors as embodied in the Ethical Standards of the American Personnel and Guidance Association--American School Counselor Association" (p. 12).

The final stage of professionalization is involvement in political agitation. During this stage, the group's

objective is to gain public acceptance and to convince the public of the need for recognizing this exclusive group of professionals. To accomplish this, the professional group usually sets admission and graduation standards for those entering and graduating from their professional training schools and establishes inviolable confidentiality privileges. This step has not been fully mastered by school counselors for although Minkoff and Terres (1985) indicated that the ASCA has been and continues to be politically active, Thomas and Myrick (1984) noted that school counselors were generally perceived as being politically naive and recommended that they take a more proactive stance in determining their professional role and image. Thomas and Myrick also indicated that school counselors felt a need for more favorable recognition and support from the public, thus indicating that school counseling as a profession has not yet received full approval from the public.

The culmination or the final stage of the process of professionalization is legislation prohibiting the people on the outside of the professional group from practicing the activities reserved for that profession. Presently, there are no laws restricting the practice of school counseling to school counselors. However, although school counseling has not attained the apex of professionalization, this should not be construed as a weakness of this group since the process of professionalization can be a prolonged one. For example, the American Medical Association, which has now "attained a position of undeniable authority and influence

over medical affairs" ("American Medical Association," 1954/1966, p. 169), has been in existence for over a century while the ASCA is only 33-years-old.

It has been suggested here that school counselors have not rebelled against their required nonprofessional duties because they are not united by the bonds of a full professional status. However, it could also be hypothesized that the school counselors' inertia is due to their satisfaction with their jobs as satisfied people have no need to change the conditions of their jobs.

Job Satisfaction Theories

Locke (1969) advised researchers that "to explain job satisfaction . . . the first question a scientific investigator must ask is not, 'How can I measure it?' but rather, 'What is it?'" (p. 334). Following Locke's admonition, this section is designed to provide an overview of the study of job satisfaction and a review of the theory of work adjustment (Dawis & Lofquist, 1984).

Traditional Theory

The earliest systematic study of job satisfaction has been attributed to Robert Hoppock (Burr, 1980; Gruneberg, 1979), who believed that people's attitudes to their jobs fell along a satisfaction-dissatisfaction continuum. Hoppock (1935) believed that satisfaction occurred when there was the presence of "any combination of psychological,

physiological, and environmental circumstances that cause a person truthfully to say, 'I am satisfied with my job'" (p. 47). The absence of this combination resulted in dissatisfaction and people who were neither satisfied nor dissatisfied were thought to be indifferent to or uncertain about their feelings toward their jobs. This view is considered the traditional approach to the study of job satisfaction and is concerned only with environmental or work variables that affect job satisfaction.

Hoppock is also considered the forerunner in the use of attitude surveys to measure job satisfaction. To measure job satisfaction, Hoppock developed the Job Satisfaction Blank which he first administered to teachers during the 1932-33 school year (Hoppock, 1935). The purpose of his investigation was to determine if there were any differences between satisfied and dissatisfied workers and since he believed that there was no acceptable means of measuring job satisfaction, he developed his own instrument. The Job Satisfaction Blank No. 1 had 258 items. Items 2-12 asked for respondents' reactions to their jobs in general, while items 13-258 sought to determine respondents' reactions to various aspects of their jobs (e.g., supervisors, salary, and working conditions). Responses to items 2-12 were used to compute a job satisfaction index and Hoppock (1935) reported a .87 split-half reliability coefficient (Spearman-Brown formula) for the index. A split-half reliability coefficient was also calculated for items 13-258 and this was determined to be .83. However, when the satisfaction

index and the item score (score derived from items 13-258) were compared, only a moderate correlation of .67 was found. This is not surprising as the instrument is long and tedious and respondents may have grown tired and probably responded less carefully to the items.

In his research, Hoppock (1935) found that the instrument discriminated between satisfied and dissatisfied workers. For example, he found that the satisfied teachers were more emotionally adjusted, older, and felt more successful than the dissatisfied teachers. After the initial work with teachers, Hoppock revised the Job Satisfaction Blank and conducted studies among other working populations. In 1933, the Job Satisfaction Blank No. 5 was used to survey the adult population in New Hope, Pennsylvania, and this version consisted of only 41 of the original 258 items. Although Hoppock (1935) continued to use attitude surveys in his research, he bemoaned the fact that there was no "valid, objective measure" of job satisfaction "which will be independent of subject's willingness to tell the truth" (p. 272). This is definitely a disadvantage in using attitude surveys. However, this disadvantage is outweighed by the advantage for as Hoppock (1935) noted, each employee "lives with himself all day and every day, he experiences his own emotions; if they are pleasant, he knows it; if they are unpleasant, no one needs to tell him so" (p. 151). Although Hoppock made inroads into the study of job satisfaction, his work has not been unchallenged.

Herzberg's Theory

The most significant challenge to the traditional theory came from Herzberg, who along with his colleagues, developed the Herzberg's two-factor or motivation-hygiene (M-H) theory of job attitudes (Carroll, 1973). This theory was first published in 1959 by Herzberg, Mausner, and Snyderman (Herzberg, 1966) who claimed that people had dual natures. On one hand, they seek to avoid pain and on the other, they seek to grow psychologically and these natures affect their attitudes toward their jobs. Based on research to test this claim, they concluded that people had two distinct reactions to their jobs--job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction. Job satisfaction promoted psychological growth and was determined by achievement, recognition, work itself, responsibility, and advancement. These satisfiers were called motivators as they stimulate people to perform better on the job. There are also five dissatisfiers or pain producers and these were collectively referred to as hygienes. The hygienes are company policy, administration, supervision, salary, interpersonal relations, and working conditions.

The biggest contention between the traditional and M-H theories is that the M-H theory asserts that job satisfaction and dissatisfaction are not on a continuum, but rather two separate continua. Herzberg (1966) argued that the "opposite of job satisfaction would not be job dissatisfaction, but rather no job satisfaction; similarly,

the opposite of job dissatisfaction is no job dissatisfaction, not satisfaction with one's job" (p. 76).

Herzberg (1966) claimed validity for his theory on the basis of the research using the critical incident report technique. This method involved asking employees to recount an experience when they felt exceptionally good and another when they felt exceptionally bad about their jobs. The initial studies among 200 engineers and accountants in Pittsburgh revealed that there were commonalities among the satisfaction experiences and that these were quite different from the commonalities of the dissatisfaction experiences. The commonalities were then classified and these gave rise to the notion that motivators were satisfiers and hygienes were dissatisfiers. This theory has generated much research, but often with results that provide conflicting support for the theory (Carroll, 1973). This may be due to the fact that studies which employ methods other than the critical incident report technique have failed to support Herzberg's theory (Locke, 1969).

Although Herzberg and Hoppock disagreed about the relationship between job satisfaction and dissatisfaction, both theorists have demonstrated that people's reactions to their jobs are influenced by job and/or job related factors. However, this view is considered inadequate by some theorists, who believe that job satisfaction is also influenced by personal characteristics of the workers.

Person-Environment Congruency Model

According to Klein and Wiener (1977), there is a third approach to the study of job satisfaction. This approach considers not only the impact of job and job related factors on employees' job satisfaction, but also considers personality variables and so is called the person-environment congruency model. Theorists using this model believe that one or more of three elements influence job satisfaction. These three elements are (a) people's needs and the capacity of the work environment to meet those needs, (b) people's vocational interests and job activities, and (c) people's abilities and the skills demanded by the job.

Two leading proponents of the first element are Locke and Vroom, who, like Herzberg, believed that people have a pleasure seeking-pain avoidance nature. Vroom (1964) explained this behavior in terms of valences, in that if individuals believe that a situation will result in a pleasurable outcome, they will enter the situation and so that situation is said to have a positive valence. On the other hand, if a situation does not have an anticipated appealing outcome, the situation will be avoided and so is said to have a negative valence. Applying this to the work situation, Vroom argued that if a job is satisfying, it has a positive valence and if dissatisfying, it has a negative valence.

In a similar vein, Locke (1969) stated that "job satisfaction and dissatisfaction are a function of the

perceived relationship between what one wants from one's job and what one perceives it as offering or entailing" (p. 316). As such, job satisfaction is a pleasurable emotional state which occurs when individuals' needs/wants are met and job dissatisfaction occurs when the opposite occurs. Although Vroom, Locke, and Herzberg ascribed to the notion of the dualistic nature of people, Vroom and Locke did not believe that two distinct conditions contribute to job satisfaction and dissatisfaction, as did Herzberg. Instead, like the traditional theorists, Vroom and Locke believed that any work situation has the potential to be satisfying or dissatisfying and added that satisfaction and dissatisfaction are influenced by individuals' needs and expectations, which develop from prior learning experiences.

Addressing the issue of the relationship between vocational interests and job satisfaction, Hansen (1984), indicated that the "correlations between interests scores and rating of job satisfaction are low" (p. 122) and cited studies with correlations ranging from .38 to .45. Hansen's observation is not surprising as job satisfaction is considered to be a function of a multiplicity of factors and perhaps is better explained by a combination of two or three elements of the person-environment congruency model, rather than any one element. One theory which considers a combination of elements--needs and abilities--is the theory of work adjustment (Dawis & Lofquist, 1984).

Theoryof Work Adjustment

The theory of work adjustment can be classified as a person-environment congruency model as it purports that work adjustment is the result of a good match between the worker and the job. This theory, as posited by Dawis and Lofquist (1984), is based on the assumption that individuals seek to maintain correspondence (a harmonious relationship) with their environments (and work is a major environment with which people must relate). Correspondence is achieved when the individual fulfills the requirements of the work environment (satisfactoriness) and the work environment fulfills the requirements of the individual (satisfaction). "The continuous and dynamic process by which the individual seeks to achieve and maintain correspondence with the work environment is called work adjustment" (Dawis & Lofquist, 1984, p. 55).

For satisfactoriness to occur, the work environment requires that the worker perform certain tasks and follow certain rules and norms of appropriate behaviors. These are considered the ability requirements of the job. On the other hand, for satisfaction to occur, the work environment must provide reinforcers for (i.e., meet the needs of) the employee. According to the theory of work adjustment, there are 20 needs and these are ability utilization, achievement, advancement, authority, company policies and practices, compensation, co-workers, creativity, independence, moral values, recognition, responsibility, security, social service, social status, supervision-human relations,

supervision-technical, variety, working conditions, and activity.

Whenever these needs are not met, the worker becomes dissatisfied and may choose to leave the job or seek to improve correspondence. The worker regains correspondence either by changing the work environment (activeness) or modifying his/her abilities, needs, and/or values (reactiveness). Activeness and reactiveness are considered to be adjustment modes, flexibility (the ability to tolerate discorrespondence before taking steps to alleviate the condition) determines when the modes are used, and perseverance (the length of time an individual can tolerate discorrespondence before leaving the job) determines how long the worker will use the modes before quitting. Like the employee, the supervisors in the work environment will take action when the correspondence balance is threatened. Here, the unsatisfactory worker may either be fired or changes made in the work environment and/or the employee.

The developers of the theory of work adjustment describe a homeostatic condition between individuals and their work environments and Dawis and Lofquist (1984) indicated that the theory can be used effectively in counseling, especially career counseling. Lofquist and Dawis (1984) also suggested that as a result of the career counselors' concern for the individual client and the social responsibility of the counselor to the client, career and job satisfaction should be a primary goal and desired

outcome of career counseling. For this reason, much attention has been paid to the satisfaction aspect of the theory. However, prior to effecting career counseling interventions, Dawis and Lofquist (1984) emphasized that there is a need for assessment of the client's situation.

One such assessment tool is the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) which was developed to measure job satisfaction. The MSQ was developed by Weiss, Dawis, England, and Lofquist (1967) and provides an indication of individuals' overall/general satisfaction with the job as well as with 20 aspects or facets of the job. These facets represent the 20 needs isted previously and are also called scales.

The MSQ is a self-report questionnaire and is printed in a long form (which has 100 items) and a short form (which has 20 items). Respondents are asked to respond to each item using a Likert scale ranging from very dissatisfied (1) to very satisfied (5). Scores for each of the 20 scales on the long form are derived by adding the scores from each of five items pertaining to that scale and total scores can range from 5 (very dissatisfied) to 25 (very satisfied). The general satisfaction score (also considered the twenty-first scale) is computed from 20 items (one from each of the first 20 scales) and can range from 20 (very dissatisfied) to 100 (very satisfied). The short form, although based on sample items from the long form, yields three scores--general, intrinsic, and extrinsic satisfaction. However, the authors, Weiss, Dawis, England,

and Lofquist (1967), strongly recommended the use of the long form over the short form as the long form provides more information.

The Manual for the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (Weiss, Dawis, England, & Lofquist, 1967) provides normative data for 25 occupational groups including accountants, elementary school teachers, and laborers as well as 355 employed disabled persons and 380 employed nondisabled workers. Although the MSQ was not normed on public school student personnel workers, Anderson, Hohenshil, and Brown (1984) have used it to measure job satisfaction among school psychologists.

Anderson, Hohenshil, and Brown (1984) modified the 1967 version of the MSQ to reduce the number of sexist and industrial relevant terms. The reliability of the modified items and their responses were determined using Cronbach's alpha and these yielded reliability coefficients of .738 to .937 for the items and .973 for the responses. Additionally, chi square analysis was used to determine the concurrent validity of the modified MSQ by comparing respondents' general satisfaction scores on the MSQ with their responses on a data form. This analysis yielded a chi square of 7.85 which was significant at the .001 level.

Weiss et al. (1967) also calculated Hoyt reliability coefficients for each of the 20 scales and found values ranging from .97 for ability utilization to .59 for the variety scale. Variations were observed between

occupational groups and so the authors suggested that internal reliability coefficients be computed for each group that is surveyed with the MSQ.

Test-retest correlation coefficients were also calculated for the MSQ using 75 night school students over a 1-week period and 115 employed persons over a 1-year period. For the 1-week interval, stability correlations ranged from .66 for the coworkers scale to .91 for the working conditions scale. Stability correlations for the 1-year interval ranged from .35 for the independence scale to .71 for the ability utilization scale. Canonical correlation analyses of the data from the two test-retest periods yielded coefficients of .97 for the 1-week test interval and .89 for the 1-year test interval.

As Albright (1972) noted, Weiss et al. (1967) do not spell out the validity data of the MSQ as they do the reliability data. Instead, the reader of the Manual for the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire is advised to consult other publications which contain information about the construct and concurrent validity of the instrument. Additionally, the construct validity of the MSQ is indirectly derived from the studies of another instrument, the Minnesota Importance Questionnaire (MIQ), which is also based on the theory of work adjustment. However, Dawis and Lofquist (1984) claimed that the research on the MSQ has yielded ". . . validity data indicating that the instrument is appropriate for use in both research and practice (p. 73).

Other evidence to support the validity of the MSQ is presented by Dunham, Smith, and Blackburn (1977) who found that the MSQ had the highest average convergent validities when compared to three other job satisfaction measures and the second highest discriminant validity scores of the instruments compared. The study by Dunham et al. (1977) was designed to compare the convergent and discriminant validities of four widely used job satisfaction measures: the MSQ, the Job Descriptive Index (JDI), the Faces Scale (Faces), and the Index of Organizational Reactions (IOR). Convergent validity was indicated by the extent to which the scales on each measure yielded similar scores among respondents. Discriminant validity was based on the extent to which each respondent's scale pattern on each instrument was similar but different from those of other individuals. Although all of the instruments yielded significant convergent and discriminant validity scores that were significant at the .01 level, the MSQ had the highest convergent validity scores which ranged from .71 to .61. The JDI had the lowest scores which ranged from .51 to .39. Kendall's coefficient of concordance was computed as a means of determining discriminant validity and the MSQ yielded the highest value of .71 while the JDI yielded the lowest score of .41. However, when a more stringent test of discriminant validity was applied to each instrument, the MSQ yielded a value of .70 compared to .77 for the IOR and .55 for the Faces and JDI.

Further analyses by Dunham et al. (1977) also demonstrated that the MSQ was least affected by differences in the respondents' sex and type of job. This is important to note as validity differences due to sex and job could produce misleading results. It was also noted that in comparing the reliability of the JDI, IOR, and MSQ, the JDI had the highest reliability coefficients of .79-.63.

Based on the findings of Weiss et al. (1967) and Dunham et al. (1977), it was concluded that the MSQ has moderately high validity and reliability measures that compare very favorably with other job satisfaction measures of good repute. This was also the conclusion of Guion (1978), who in reviewing the MSQ noted that "the MSQ is well developed, it holds up well in comparison with a major alternate instrument and it can give detailed diagnostics or parsimonious summary statements . . ." (p. 1680).

To date, most of the support for the theory of work adjustment has come from the validation of instruments like the MSQ. For example, to test the concept of satisfaction, the MSQ was developed and from research on the MSQ, it was inferred that the concept of satisfaction was a valid one. Another instrument that has its roots in the theory of work adjustment is the Minnesota Satisfactoriness Scales (MSS), which was developed to measure the concept of satisfactoriness (Dawis & Lofquist, 1984). Since satisfaction and satisfactoriness are two independent factors of work adjustment, it was important to demonstrate this and so the MSS and MSQ were administered to persons in

several occupational groups. Canonical correlation analysis was applied to the scores and coefficients of .11 to .24 were obtained, thus indicating that the MSS and MSQ did measure two independent concepts of satisfactoriness and satisfaction.

Some support for this theory has also been inferred from related research. For example, in discussing the research support for the relationship between satisfaction and tenure, Dawis and Lofquist (1984) referred the reader to studies, conducted by other researchers, which demonstrate that there is a negative relationship between turnover and job satisfaction.

Job Satisfaction Research

The literature on the sources of job satisfaction can be classified into three areas. These are studies of (a) the relationship between job satisfaction and the job itself, (b) the relationship between job satisfaction and job context factors, and (c) the relationship between job satisfaction and individual differences. These categories will be used to organize the information presented in this section.

Job Satisfaction and the Job Itself

In reviewing the literature on job satisfaction, Gruneberg (1979) identified several factors that contributed to job satisfaction. These factors include achievement of

success and recognition as well as the application of skills.

Success. This factor refers to the satisfaction the employee feels after completing a job and is similar to the need for achievement as described in the theory of work adjustment (Dawis & Lofquist, 1984). In Hoppock's (1935) landmark study (that was discussed earlier) he reported that "what did discriminate clearly and repeatedly" among the satisfied and dissatisfied teachers "were questions regarding the individual's feeling of success and progress, his sense of accomplishment, as measured by his own standards . . ." (p. 33). For example, when teachers were asked if they could see the results of their work, 93% of the satisfied group replied in the affirmative while 68% of the dissatisfied group said no. Similarly, when asked if they felt that they were making success in their jobs, 93% of the satisfied group said yes, while 41% of the dissatisfied group said no. Again, when asked if they were doing well in their jobs as expected, only 49% of the dissatisfied group said yes compared to 82% of the satisfied group of teachers. Herzberg (1966) also reported that in his original studies, achievement emerged as a strong determiner of job satisfaction.

The need for success or achievement was also called task identity by Hackman and Lawler (1971), who demonstrated that there was a significant positive relationship of .20 ($p \leq .05$) between task identity and job satisfaction. Task

identity was listed, by Hackman and Lawler, as one of the four core conditions that are necessary for job satisfaction.

Recognition. Recognition concerns the external validation that a worker receives for his/her accomplishements. This can be formally accomplished through promotion, award, higher pay, and the like or informally through praise and feedback from supervisors and coworkers. The need for recognition was one of the need factors listed in the theory of work adjustment (Dawis & Lofquist, 1984).

Herzberg (1966) reported that recognition is also a strong motivator and Hoppock (1935) noted that among the teachers in this study, 82% of the satisfied teachers felt that people showed appreciation for their work while only 37% of the dissatisfied group felt this way. Recognition of employees was considered as one of Hackman and Lawler's (1971) four core conditions that were necessary for building or maintaining job satisfaction. Hackman and Lawler referred to this factor as feedback and indicated that for feedback to be effective, it must be given in a believable manner or the employee will be frustrated. Additionally, Srivasta, Salipante, Cummings, Notz, Bigelow, and Waters (1977), after reviewing several field experiments on job satisfaction, concluded that timely feedback was necessary in order to promote job satisfaction.

Application of skills. Vroom (1964) noted that individuals derive satisfaction from their jobs when they are allowed to use their skills and abilities. This, too, was recognized as a need in the theory of work adjustment

(Dawis & Lofquist, 1984). Vroom (1964) verified that use of skills and abilities was related to job satisfaction. In a study of hourly-paid, blue-collar workers in a Canadian oil refinery, Vroom found a correlation of .59 between ability utilization and job satisfaction. The fact that underutilization of skills can be a problem was noted by Staines and Quinn (1979) who found that 35.6% of the respondents in their 1977 quality of employment survey reported that they were dissatisfied with the lack of opportunities to use their skills on their jobs. Rumberger (1981) referred to this problem as overeducation and suggested that this could lead to job dissatisfaction.

It has also been found that employees not only want to use their skills and abilities, but also to do so in a variety of ways (Gruneberg, 1979). Variety of tasks is also listed as a need in the theory of work adjustment (Dawis & Lofquist, 1984). In a study conducted by Hackman and Lawler (1971), it was observed that variety and job satisfaction were significantly related. This study had a sample of various categories of workers from an eastern telephone company. Participants completed a 23-item questionnaire, which was designed to measure the employees' reactions to their jobs. Correlations were calculated based on the items dealing with general satisfaction and variety in the job and a relationship of .38 ($p < .05$) was found. Srivasta et al. (1977) noted similar results in a review of several field studies designed to investigate job satisfaction.

Another of Hackman and Lawler's (1971) core contributors to job satisfaction was autonomy. Autonomy can be described as the extent to which employees have input into how or when they apply their skills and abilities to complete a task. In their study, Hackman and Lawler obtained a .39 ($p < .05$) correlation coefficient for the relationship between autonomy and job satisfaction. Srivasta et al. (1977) and Katzell and Yankelovich (1975) noted similar observations in their review of correlational and field studies on job satisfaction. Other researchers, like Herzberg (1966), used the term responsibility to describe this concept of autonomy. Responsibility is one of the needs in the theory of work adjustment (Dawis & Lofquist, 1984).

Job Satisfaction and Job Context Factors

This category of factors includes such factors as pay, security, supervision, organizational climate, and coworkers. According to Herzberg (1966), these factors do not contribute to job satisfaction, but rather to job dissatisfaction. However, researchers have found positive (although often weak) relationships between job context factors and job satisfaction.

Pay. After reviewing nine studies on the relationship between job satisfaction and salary, Srivasta et al. (1977) concluded that there was a positive relationship between pay and job satisfaction. This was found to be true by Hackman and Lawler (1971) who found a significant correlation of .44

($p < .05$) between job satisfaction and pay. Hoppock (1935) also found similar results as 47% of the satisfied teachers expressed discontent with their pay while 71% of the dissatisfied teachers expressed the same. It is studies like these that led the developers of the theory of work adjustment (Dawis & Lofquist, 1984) to include compensation as a need requirement.

There is also some indication that the importance of pay varies with job levels. This was reported by Voydanoff (1978) who conducted a national study of approximately 1,200 persons at five occupational levels: professional, managerial, clerical, crafts, and laborer. Respondents were asked to express their satisfaction with seven aspects of the job. These were financial rewards-promotions, requirement of hard work on the job, role strain (not knowing what is expected on the job), supervision, working conditions, enriching job demands, and self-expression. A multiple regression analysis of the results revealed that self-expression, role strain, and financial rewards-promotions were related to job satisfaction for all occupational levels. While financial rewards were not considered to be the most important factor in determining job satisfaction by any of the occupational levels, managers gave the highest rating to the importance of this factor.

However, Katzell and Yankelovich (1979) maintained that high pay does not necessarily contribute to job satisfaction;

rather, it is whether or not the employee believes that the pay is commensurate with performance and responsibility that will make the difference. Vroom (1964) also suggested that satisfaction with pay is moderated by another variable--social equity. He believed that people whose wages are commensurate with those at their occupational level tend to be more satisfied than those who believe that their counterparts receive higher wages.

Security. In the theory of work adjustment (Dawis & Lofquist, 1984) security is listed as a need requirement of workers. This view was corroborated by Hackman and Lawler (1971) who found a correlation of .47 ($p < .05$) between job satisfaction and security. Not much attention is given to this factor in the literature on job satisfaction and perhaps this is so as the importance of job security is relevant to socioeconomic conditions. Hoppock (1935) and Gruneberg (1979) have suggested that job security becomes a factor in job satisfaction only when there is a threat of unemployment due to political and/or financial crises. For example, in 1977, when economic conditions were better, Staines and Quinn (1979) reported that only 9.4% of their national sample of workers were troubled by the possibility of unemployment. However, today, with rising inflation and reductions in government-funded projects, it may be reasonable to expect that security would be a grave concern among many employed people.

Supervision. In the Voydanoff (1978) study (described earlier) the effect of supervision on job satisfaction was

considered. It was found that supervision did not affect the job satisfaction of employees at any of the occupational levels. This seems to support Herzberg's (1966) view that supervision is a hygiene factor and not a motivator. However, Srivasta et al. (1977) and Katzell and Yankelovich (1975) maintain that there is a positive relationahip between job satisfaction and participative supervision. That is, people feel better about their jobs when they are allowed to have input into the decision-making process of the organization. This was the conclusion of Jackson (1983) who conducted an experiment among the nursing and clerical staff at a hospital's outpatient facility. Jackson utilized a Solomon four-group design and randomly assigned the staff to one of the four groups. For the intervention groups, unit supervisors were instructed to hold meetings at least twice each month while the supervisors of the control group conducted meetings no more than twice a month.

Additionally, the intervention group members were allowed to have input on matters affecting the unit while the control group had none. After three and six months, all four groups completed the short form of the MSQ. The data were subjected to an analysis of variance which indicated that the intervention did have a significant increase on employees' job satisfaction.

Results similar to Jackson's (1983) were also obtained by Schneider (1984) who surveyed 276 middle/junior high school teachers in Wisconsin. Responses from the 260

teachers indicated that job satisfaction increased as participation in the schools' decision making process increased. However, Schneider also found that participation in the decision making process was not equally important to all persons. This finding was clarified by Vroom (1964), who concluded from prior research that the effects of participative decision making were related to personality variables like authoritarianism and the need for independence.

Employees not only like to participate in the decision making process, but expect warmth and support from their supervisors. Hackman and Lawler (1971) found this to be so in their research, in that a significant correlation of .33 ($p < .05$) was found for the relationship between job satisfaction and fair treatment from the boss. This factor has also been recognized as a need in the theory of work adjustment (Dawis & Lofquist, 1984).

Another supervisory behavior that employees value is supervisory competence or resourcefulness (Katzell & Yankelovich, 1975). Employees expect their supervisors to have the knowledge to make competent work-related decisions. This is also listed as a need factor in the theory of work adjustment (Dawis & Lofquist, 1984).

Organizational climate. Closely related to supervisory behavior is the organizational climate of the work environment. Gruneberg (1979), Katzell and Yankelovich (1975), and Srivasta et al. (1977) all noted that employees tend to be more satisfied when there are open lines of

communication between the employees and top level officials as well as when there is less of a hierarchical structure in the organization. Consistent with these results, the theory of work adjustment (Dawis & Lofquist, 1984) included organizational climate as an employee need.

In addition to providing a supportive climate for their employees, organizations are expected to provide safe working conditions. This was found to be a growing concern by Staines and Quinn (1979) in their quality of employment surveys. In 1969, 38% of all workers polled expressed concern about being exposed to one or more safety and health hazards. Four years later the number expressing concern with this problem grew to 42% and by 1977, 78% of the respondents expressed concern about the safety conditions at work. Staines and Quinn attributed part of the dramatic increase in expressed concern to improvement in measuring techniques. However, increase in the knowledge of the employees could also account for some of the increased concern as the Environmental Protection Agency and several interest groups were making the population more aware of potential hazards in the workplace.

In the study conducted by Voydanoff (1978), working conditions contributed to the satisfaction of managers and laborers, but not to professionals, clerks, or craftsmen. However, in Hoppock's (1935) study the teachers did give consideration to their work environment and 86% of the satisfied teachers indicated that they liked

their work environment while only 52% of the dissatisfied teachers expressed a liking for the same.

According to the theory of work adjustment (Dawis & Lofquist, 1984), people expect advancement or promotional opportunities to be provided by the employing organization. This is considered as a motivator in Herzberg's (1966) theory and Hackman and Lawler (1971) also found a small but significant relationship of .33 ($p < .05$) between promotion and job satisfaction. Staines and Quinn (1979) also noted that, nationally, there had been a significant decline in satisfaction with promotional opportunities between 1973 and 1977 and, coincidentally, there was also a significant decline in general job satisfaction during those years. While no causal relationship can be inferred from the results, it is plausible that there is a correlation between the decline in job satisfaction and promotional opportunities.

The theory of work adjustment (Dawis & Lofquist, 1984) stated that just as individuals have requirements of their employing organizations, the organization has requirements of the employee. However, the organization does not always clarify its expectations to the employee and this produces role conflict which leads to lowered job satisfaction. Gruneberg (1979) and Kahn (1974) also supported this view. In Voydanoff's (1978) study, this condition was described as role strain and was determined to be the major source to affect the job satisfaction of professional, managers, and laborers and the second major source for clerks and crafts

workers. The conditions of role overload (too much work) and role ambiguity (insufficient information to enable the employee to perform an adequate job) are often manifested with role conflict (Kahn, 1974).

Co-workers. Recognizing that people are social animals, researchers have examined the contribution of co-worker relationships to employees' job satisfaction. Hackman and Lawler (1971) reported a very weak (.19) but significant ($p < .05$) correlation between job satisfaction and employees' ability to develop close relationships on the job. Gruneberg (1979) also reported that on the whole, people preferred co-workers who were supportive. In fact, Dawis and Lofquist (1984) included co-worker relationships as an employee need in the theory of work adjustment.

Job Satisfaction and Individual Differences

It has been shown that several individual differences influence job satisfaction and included in this category are age, education, sex, race, occupational status, and job level.

Age. Weaver (1980) examined seven national surveys that were conducted between 1972 and 1978 and discovered that job satisfaction increased with age. This is consistent with Hoppock's (1935) findings that the mean age of the satisfied group of teachers was higher than that of the dissatisfied group.

Education. The relationship between job satisfaction and educational level was also examined by Weaver (1980), who reported that satisfaction is positively related to educational level. Quinn and Mandilovitch (1980) also examined 11 national surveys that were conducted between 1962 and 1977 and found a significant positive relationship between level of education and job satisfaction.

Sex. Hoppock (1935) observed that there were no sexual differences between satisfied and dissatisfied teachers and this is similar to Weaver's (1980) report that there were no consistent differences between male and female satisfaction recorded in national surveys conducted between 1972 and 1978. However, Martin and Hanson (1985) and Varca, Shaffer, and McCauley (1983) contended that sex differences do exist. Using the 1972-73 quality of employment survey data, Martin and Hanson compared the satisfaction levels of male breadwinners with female breadwinners and nonbreadwinners. The females in the study reported slightly higher levels of job satisfaction, but the female nonbreadwinners reported the highest level of job satisfaction. It was suggested that the female nonbreadwinners do not feel as compelled to take jobs as do the breadwinners and so can be more selective about their choice of jobs. It should be noted that the results of the Martin and Hanson (1985) study may be spurious since they reviewed only one of seven studies conducted between 1972 and 1978 and so the findings may not be part of a consistent pattern.

In a five-year follow-up study of 392 college graduates, Varca, Shaffer, and McCauley (1983) compared the satisfaction of the sexes with nine job factors. These factors were salary, advancement and discretion opportunities, company reputation, supervisory and co-worker relationships, nature of the work itself, and working conditions. The response rate was 66% and respondents were classified into high and low level occupational groups, based on the type of jobs they had. Data collected from the questionnaires were analyzed using a 2 (occupational level) X 2 (sex) MANOVA. Significant main effects were reported for satisfaction with pay, discretion opportunities, working conditions, and the nature of the work.

For pay satisfaction, the group in the high occupational level reported higher job satisfaction than did the low occupational level group. There was also an interaction between sex and occupational level in that males at the high occupational levels tended to be more satisfied than males at the low levels and the reverse was true for females. Similar results were obtained for promotion satisfaction. For the other factors, males reported more satisfaction with discretion opportunities and working conditions while the high occupational group tended to be more satisfied with the nature of the work. No significant interactions were found for the last three factors.

Occupational level. As a result of their research, Varca, Shaffer, and McCauley (1983) concluded that people at

different occupational levels react differently to their jobs. In his research, Voydanoff (1978) also demonstrated this point as people in five occupational groups (professional, managerial, clerical, craftsworkers, and laborers) reported differences in the factors that affect their job satisfaction. For example, clerical and craftsworkers were more concerned about self-expression in their jobs than were professionals, managers, or laborers.

Vroom (1984) noted that researchers consistently found a positive relationship between occupational level/status and job satisfaction. Specifically, professionals tend to be the most satisfied group and unskilled workers the least satisfied. Weaver (1980) agreed with the observation that employees in high status level jobs tend to be more satisfied than those in low status jobs; however, unlike Vroom, Weaver found that managers and not professionals were the most satisfied personnel. The fact that people feel better about their jobs, if it provides social status for them, was recognized as a need in the theory of work adjustment (Dawis & Lofquist, 1984).

Race. In a comparison of national job satisfaction surveys, Weaver (1980) presented evidence to show that blacks were generally less satisfied than whites. Data for other minorities were not presented. Vecchio (1980), who compared the results of the National Opinion Research Center's General Social Surveys that were conducted between 1972 and 1977, reached a similar conclusion. It

has been speculated that, as is the case with women, the lowered job satisfaction scores among blacks probably reflect differential treatment in the workplace.

Job Satisfaction and Its Correlates

Several researchers have suggested that there are relationships between job satisfaction and factors like productivity, absenteeism, turnover, occupational stress, burnout, mental health, and life satisfaction. This section is a survey of some of the literature concerning these relationships.

Job Productivity

After evaluating research on the relationship between productivity (job performance) and job satisfaction, Vroom (1964) concluded that the correlations were small and inconsistent; thus, no firm conclusions could be made about this relationship. However, Srivasta et al. (1977) maintained that the factors that contribute to job satisfaction (e.g., variety of tasks) also lead to increased productivity. This implies that there is a positive relationship between job performance and satisfaction.

Contrary to Srivasta et al. (1977), Katzell and Yankelovich (1975) were more cautious in describing the relationship between the two since there are times when job satisfaction seems to be enhanced by productivity and vice-versa. As an explanation for this complex situation, Lawler and Porter (1975) proposed that the missing link between the

two was the rewards the employee receives. They believed that on completion of a job an individual receives intrinsic rewards (e.g., sense of accomplishment) and extrinsic rewards (e.g., pay). If the employee perceives that the rewards are consistent with the job performance, this will lead to increased performance. Lawler and Porter then tested their idea using 148 middle and lower level managers.

Each manager was given a survey consisting of 13 items which had two parts with one part that was used to determine actual satisfaction with rewards and a second part used to determine the level of reward expected by the employee. Each item had a response category of 1 (minimum) to 7 (maximum) and the response to the first part was subtracted from the response to the second part. These difference scores were added to obtain a job satisfaction score. Supervisors and peers were asked to rate the performance of the managers and small but significant positive relationships were obtained for job satisfaction and the performance ratings of supervisors ($r = .30$, $p < .01$) and those of the peers ($r = .30$, $p < .01$). These findings do give credence to the notions of Lawler and Porter, but should be considered tentative until more research is conducted in this area.

Absenteeism

As with the studies on job satisfaction and productivity, which produce conflicting results, so do

studies on the relationship between job satisfaction and absenteeism. It is often believed that there is a negative relationship between job satisfaction and absenteeism. For example, Hackman and Lawler (1971) reported a small negative relationship (-.10) between absenteeism and job satisfaction. However, this correlation was not significant. Gruneberg (1979) suggested that the relationship between job satisfaction and absenteeism is quite complex as some people may be dissatisfied with their jobs, but feel moral constraints to attend every day. It would also seem likely that employees, out of fear of being fired, would not demonstrate too much absenteeism behavior.

Turnover

In the theory of work adjustment, Dawis & Lofquist (1984) proposed that satisfied employees are less prone to leave their jobs. Thus, there is a high rate of tenure (i.e., low turnover rate) among this group. Vroom (1964) and Gruneberg (1979) indicated that studies consistently demonstrated a negative relationship between job satisfaction and the turnover rate.

One such study was conducted by Hulin (1968) who reported increases in satisfaction and decreases in turnover behavior after the implementation of a program to promote job satisfaction in a manufacturing company. During 1961-1963, it was determined that this company had a 30% turnover rate among its clerical staff. In 1964, the employees were

asked to complete a measure of job satisfaction, the Job Descriptive Index (JDI), and analyses of their responses indicated that the employees were dissatisfied with the administration of salary across wage levels and the lack of promotional opportunities. The company then instituted programs to make salaries more equitable and to allow for frequent wage reviews. Other changes included the facilitation of promotional opportunities and the provision of opportunities for the clerks to expand their responsibilities in their jobs. In 1966, the JDI was readministered and 298 of the 350 staff members, who were present at administration returned their surveys.

While there was not significant appreciation of overall job satisfaction scores, Hulin (1968), using *t*-tests, showed that there were significant increases in the employees' satisfaction with pay, promotions, co-workers, and supervisors. Hulin also checked the turnover rate at the end of the intervention period and discovered that there was a decrease from 30% to 12%. A Pearson correlation coefficient was calculated for the relationship between the satisfaction and turnover variables and this was found to be $-.27$ ($p < .01$). Although these results do support the belief that turnover and job satisfaction are negatively correlated, it should be noted that Hulin did not conduct a true experimental study and a number of uncontrolled variables (e.g., maturity and history) could account for some of the change.

Occupational Stress

Occupational or job stress is defined as the "condition in which some factor, or combination of factors, at work interacts with the worker to disrupt his psychological or physiological homeostasis" (Margolis & Kroes, 1974, p. 15). Margolis and Kroes also suggested that job stress was the result of a person-environment mismatch and is manifested as anxiety, tension, anger, fear, chronic depression and fatigue, or impaired physical health and work performance. McLean (1974) suggested that occupational stress is related to job satisfaction and this was demonstrated in a study by Kyriacou and Sutcliffe (1979).

Participants in the Kyriacou and Sutcliffe (1979) study were 218 teachers from 16 British schools. The teachers were asked to respond to a survey, developed by Kyriacou and Sutcliffe, and when the responses from these surveys were analyzed, it was found that a significant negative correlation ($r = -.27$, $p < .01$) existed between job satisfaction and job stress.

Burnout

The development of the concept of burnout was attributed to Freudenberger (Edelwich & Brodsky, 1980), who revealed, in 1974, that he had recovered from burnout and that his condition had resulted from his efforts to maintain too many professional, social, and personal commitments. Maslach (1982) has done extensive research on burnout and reported that it is the employee's response to chronic job stress.

Many authors (e.g., Perlman and Hartman, 1980) have suggested that there is a negative link between job satisfaction and burnout. This link seems plausible based on the premise that burnout is a chronic form of occupational stress--a negative correlate of job satisfaction.

Mental Health

Gruneberg (1979) submitted that although small, there was a relationship between job satisfaction and mental health. Furnham and Schaeffer (1984) investigated this relationship and concluded that there is a positive correlation between job satisfaction and mental health. Hoppock's Job Satisfaction Blank (Hoppock, 1935) was used to measure job satisfaction while the Langner--22 Index of Mental Health (Langner, 1962)--an instrument which screens for 22 psychological problems as well as depression and withdrawal--was used to determine the employees' level of mental health. These instruments, in addition to the Self-Directed Search, were administered to 82 British adults, who were fulltime employees. A comparison of the mean scores on the instruments was conducted, using Pearson's correlation, and this revealed that there was a significant negative relationship ($r = -.47$, $p < .001$) between job satisfaction and poor mental health. Congruence or person-environment fit was calculated from the similarities between individuals' codes on the Self-Directed Search and the Holland codes for their occupations. The relationship

between congruence and job satisfaction was found to be .37 ($p < .001$) while the calculated relationship between congruence and poor mental health was -.24 ($p < .01$). Therefore, it can be assumed that people whose interests match their occupations will most likely enjoy job satisfaction and good mental health.

Life Satisfaction

Staines and Quinn (1979) noted that accompanying a decrease in national job satisfaction, between 1973 and 1977, was a decrease in life satisfaction. Life satisfaction was determined from two questions in which respondents were asked about their perceptions of their current level of satisfaction with life and the way their lives were being spent. Chacko (1983) did a cross lagged analysis of the results from the 1977 survey and concluded that job satisfaction tended to influence life satisfaction rather than vice versa. Chacko's observation should only be treated tentatively as causality is best inferred from experimental studies. However, there does seem to be some link between job and life satisfaction for as Hoppock (1935) noted, a higher percentage of the satisfied teachers (77%) expressed contentment with life than did the dissatisfied teachers (51%).

Summary

School counselors play an important part in the educational and emotional development of students in the

nation's elementary, middle/junior, and senior high schools. In this position, they serve as role models for students. However, their reactions to their jobs could influence the manner in which the school counselors discharge their duties and much has been written about school counselors' negative reactions to their jobs. It is the belief of many authors that factors like role ambiguity, conflict, and overload are contributors to the school counselors' reactions. These reactions have often been described as burnout, job/occupational stress, and, less frequently, job dissatisfaction. However, after reviewing the limited literature on job stress and burnout among school counselors, it was concluded that the descriptions of school counselors as stressed may not be accurate as there is no data to indicate that extraordinarily high stress levels exist among school counselors.

On the other hand, there is some support for the view that persons whose needs are met by their employing organizations will be satisfied and that this satisfaction has positive correlates like good mental health, lack of occupational stress, and satisfaction with life. It therefore seemed appropriate that in order to help career counselors match clients with a school counseling career and to help them get a realistic picture of the positive and negative aspects of school counseling, a comprehensive study of the causes of job satisfaction among school counselors should be conducted.

The measurement of job satisfaction has varied with investigations as some researchers have used instruments with one question while others have used 238 questions. Additionally, some instruments were designed to measure general/overall job satisfaction while others were designed to measure facets or components of job satisfaction. This situation has often led to conflicting results and inconclusive data. It was this situation that prompted Staines and Quinn (1979) to assert that instruments with a singular question can only generate limited data and so they recommended the use of instruments with several questions, aimed both at identifying the sources of job satisfaction and the overall level of job satisfaction.

One instrument which meets this requirement is the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ), which is based on the theory of work adjustment (Dawis & Lofquist, 1984). Dawis and Lofquist proposed that job satisfaction is the result of a complementary fit between employees' needs and the rewards of the employing organization and this this leads to tenure. Twenty needs have been identified and these needs or sources of satisfaction have been corroborated by several studies. It has also been demonstrated that the MSQ is a reliable and valid measure of job satisfaction and so it was selected for use in this study.

CHAPTER III
METHODOLOGY

This descriptive study was designed to provide an index of the current level of job satisfaction among school counselors in the American School Counselor Association, describe the sources of job satisfaction among this occupational group, and determine if job satisfaction could be predicted from selected personal and employment variables. To achieve this, school counselors were surveyed using a job satisfaction survey that consisted of two sections--a personal and employment data section (PEDS) and the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) (Weiss, Dawis, England, & Lofquist, 1967). Counselors at the elementary, junior/middle, and senior high schools were then compared with respect to levels and sources of satisfaction; in addition, the contribution of selected variables to job satisfaction was determined.

Population and Sample

The sample in this study was solicited from the current membership of the American School Counselor Association (ASCA). This association is a division of the American Association for Counseling and Development and was formed in 1952 in recognition of the fact that school counselors were performing a unique role (Minkoff & Terres, 1985). The

1985 membership was 9,000 and included school counselors, school counseling and guidance directors, counselor educators, administrators, and so forth from the United States and several foreign countries. Of the 9,000 members, 60% were female and 50% worked in elementary, secondary, and postsecondary institutions (Minkoff & Terres, 1985).

Coded surveys were sent to a random sample of 1450 school counselors, on the ASCA's 1985 membership roll. A total of 779 school counselors returned the surveys for a response rate of 54%. Upon return, responses were screened and only those respondents who met the following criteria were included in the final sample: (a) They were employed in elementary, middle/junior, or senior high schools; (b) had the main duties of counseling, consultation, and guidance; (c) were practicing on the mainland of the United States of America; and (d) had completed both the MSQ and the PEDS of the job satisfaction survey. Of the 779 responses, 93 were not deemed usable as 8 persons did not complete a section of the survey; 1 person had moved and left no forwarding address; 7 school counselors were stationed overseas with various branches of the armed forces; and 77 people were no longer school counselors. On completion of data collection, to ensure anonymity, the list of names associated with each code was destroyed.

The final sample consisted of 686 school counselors and they represented the 48 mainland states and the District of Columbia. There were 661 full-time school counselors and 25

part-time, whose mean age was 44 years. As shown in Table 1, the school counselors had an average monthly salary of $2,265, had worked for 11 years as school counselors, and spent 8 years in their present positions.

Other pertinent demographic data, including sex and degree level, are presented in Table 2. It was noted that the majority of school counselor respondents were female (66%), had a masters degree (79%), were employed in senior high schools (43%), and worked in public schools (92%).

Table 1
Description of Sample

Characteristic	Mean	SD	Range
Age (n = 681)	44	9.1	21-70
Salary (n = 661)	2265	808.6	0-5600
Job Tenure (n = 683)	8	6.6	1-36
Occupational Tenure (n = 683)	11	7.3	1-39

Instrumentation

Each member in the sample received the job satisfaction survey which consisted of a personal and employment data section and the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (Weiss, Dawis, England, & Lofquist, 1967). The personal and employment data section (PEDS), developed by the investigator, was comprised of 23 items that included multiple-choice and open-ended questions.

Table 2
Sample Characteristics

Characteristic	Frequency (N = 686)	Percentage of Sample
Sex		
Female	452	66.00
Male	233	34.00
Missing cases	1	0.00
Employment		
Full-time	661	96.00
Part-time	25	4.00
Missing cases	0	0.00
Degree Level		
Bachelors	6	1.00
Masters	540	79.00
Specialist	109	16.00
Doctorate	30	4.00
Missing cases	1	0.00
School Level		
Elementary	188	27.00
Middle/junior high	128	19.00
Senior high	296	43.00
Elementary-middle/junior high	23	3.40
Middle-senior high	18	2.60
All 3 levels	28	4.00
Missing cases	5	1.00
School Setting		
Urban	538	78.00
Rural	141	21.00
Missing cases	7	1.00
Control of School		
Public	628	92.00
Private	55	8.00
Missing cases	3	0.40

The second section of the job satisfaction survey was the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ). The MSQ, developed by Weiss, Dawis, England, and Lofquist, was

published in 1967. In 1977, it was revised to remove sexist language. The long form, used in this study, consists of 100 items that were designed to measure overall/general satisfaction as well as satisfaction with 20 aspects or reinforcers of the job (e.g., ability utilization and compensation). Permission was obtained from the publisher to reword several items to render them more applicable to school counselors. These revisions were necessary as the MSQ was developed for use in industrial settings and terms such as "boss" and "company" were replaced with "principal" and "school."

In reviewing the MSQ, Guion (1978) recommended it as a reliable and valid instrument that compared well with other measures that have been used extensively for many years. According to the Manual for the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (Weiss, Dawis, England, & Lofquist, 1967), the internal reliability of the 20 scales and the general satisfaction scale is moderate to high, ranging from .50 to .97. This is also true for test-retest reliability. Weiss et al. (1967) also maintained that the MSQ demonstrates concurrent, content, and construct validities. Dunham, Smith, and Blackburn (1977) also demonstrated that the MSQ has high discriminant and convergent validities (see further discussion in Chapter II). In this study, Cronbach's coefficient alpha was used to determine the reliability of the General Satisfaction Scale and it was found to be .87.

Data Collection

In March 1986, school counselors were mailed a packet consisting of (a) a job satisfaction survey, (b) a business reply envelope, and (c) a cover letter which included a brief description of the purpose of the study. In the letter, the school counselors were instructed to indicate their responses on the job satisfaction survey and to return the entire job satisfaction survey in the business reply (postage paid) envelope. Data collection lasted 15 weeks.

Pilot Study

Satisfaction surveys were mailed to 50 school counselors in a Florida school district in May 1985. Twenty-seven (54%) surveys were returned and after screening for incomplete surveys, 22 (44%) surveys were deemed usable. Respondents indicated that they completed the entire survey in an average of 25 minutes.

The final sample consisted of 7 males and 15 females with 8 school counselors working in elementary schools, 6 in middle/junior high schools, and 8 in senior high schools. Overall, the group had a mean satisfaction score of 73 on a scale ranging from 20, very dissatisfied, to 100, very satisfied. This indicated a moderate level of job satisfaction. The females reported a higher level of job satisfaction ($\underline{M}$ = 75) than did the males ($\underline{M}$ = 69). When school counselors at the three school levels were compared,

middle/junior high school counselors reported the highest level of satisfaction ($\underline{M}$ = 78) and high school counselors reported the lowest level of satisfaction ($\underline{M}$ = 69). Elementary school counselors had the second highest level of satisfaction ($\underline{M}$ = 74).

Based on the school counselors' responses to the personal and employment data section, several changes were made on the instrument. For example, on item 20 many of the school counselors indicated that they were involved in individual and group guidance as well as special education referrals and so sub-items (c), (f), and (l) were added to item 20. Additionally, item 21 was originally an open-ended question and after the pilot study, responses to this item were used to develop the list of reasons (for which school counselors chose school counseling) for the final version of the instrument.

Other changes made after the pilot study were based on Best's (1977) suggestions for designing good questionnaires. Some detail was added to several questions (to render them unambiguous) and then the entire personal and employment data section was reorganized. Examples of items that were clarified were items 1 and 5, where numerical definitions were added to each alternative and items 12 and 13 which specified which salary and age information were desired. These changes were made to ensure that comparable data were received from all respondents.

The reorganization involved arranging the items so that similar items were grouped together and items requiring factual information (1-15) were placed at the beginning of the instrument. Those items requiring more thought (16-23) were placed afterwards. Best (1977) also suggested that respondents prefer that the last item of a survey elicit good feelings and so the item asking respondents to list the five most satisfying aspects of their jobs (item 23) became the final item of the personal and employment data section. It should also be noted that items 14 and 15 were constructed after the pilot study.

Research Questions

This study addressed seven specific research questions. These questions were based on the general questions listed in Chapter I and are presented below.

1. What is the overall level of job satisfaction among school counselors who are members of the American School Counselor Association, as indicated on the MSQ?

2. What are the sources of job satisfaction among school counselors who are members of the American School Counselor Association?

3. Are there differences in the sources of job satisfaction, reported on the MSQ, among school counselors in the elementary, middle/junior, and senior high schools?

4. Is there a relationship between school counselors' ages and their overall level of job satisfaction as reported on the MSQ?

5. Is there a relationship between the school counselors' overall level of job satisfaction and their monthly salaries?

6. Can the overall job satisfaction of school counselors be predicted from the level of school in which they are employed, sex, degree level, setting of counselors' school, control of counselors' school, level of involvement in the ASCA at the national level, level of involvement in the ASCA at the state/regional level, and the number of professional memberships held by each school counselor?

7. Can the overall job satisfaction of school counselors be predicted from occupational tenure, job tenure, the counselor-student ratio in the school, the weekly percentage of time spent on each of their regular duties, degree of job challenge reported by the school counselors, their perception of the adequacy of their training, and the degree to which the profession meets their expectations?

CHAPTER IV
RESULTS

In exploring job satisfaction among school counselors in the American School Counselor Association, seven research questions were raised. The results, based on a job satisfaction survey conducted among the members of the American School Counselor Association, are presented in this chapter with each question discussed in a separate section.

Research Question 1

The first research question was as follows: What is the overall level of job satisfaction among school counselors who are members of the American School Counselor Association, as indicated on the MSQ?

The answer to this question was generated from the composite mean score attained by the respondents on the general satisfaction scale of the MSQ. The possible range of scores was 20 (very dissatisfied) to 100 (very satisfied) and the mean score for the school counselors in this study was 76 (SD = 9.6, N = 659), indicating that the school counselors, as a whole, were moderately satisfied. This finding is consistent with that of the pilot study conducted by the writer.

Research Question 2

The second research question was as follows: What are the sources of job satisfaction among school counselors who are members of the American School Counselor Association?

The answer to this question was based on two sources: the MSQ scales and item 23 of the personal and employment data section (PEDS) of the job satisfaction survey. The 20 scales of the MSQ were examined first and those with composite mean scores above 15 (the midpoint of the scales) were used as sources of job satisfaction. The mean scores on these scales had a possible range of 5 (very dissatisfied) to 25 (very satisfied) and on only one scale, advancement, was the score below 15 ($M = 14.63$, $SD = 4.45$) and so could not be considered as a source of job satisfaction for the school counselors. The list of MSQ scales with means above 15 are located in Table 3. Social service, activity, creativity, moral values, and variety were the five greatest sources of satisfaction reported by the school counselors on the MSQ. On the other hand recognition, social status, supervision--technical, school policies and practicies, and compensation were the five areas in which counselors derived the least amount of job satisfaction.

Secondly, a list of the most satisfying aspects of school counseling, as reported by the school counselors, was compiled from item 23 of the PEDS. The 10 satisfying job aspects, that were reported most frequently by the school counselors, are listed in Table 4. According to

Table 4, the majority of school counselors (75%) included relationship with students among the five most satisfying aspects of their jobs. Achievement, ability utilization, and relationships with parents and teachers were also among the five most frequently listed satisfying aspects of school counseling. A comparison of Tables 3 and 4 revealed that achievement, ability utilization, variety, social service, and autonomy were among the 10 areas of greatest satisfaction reported by the school counselors on the PEDS and the MSQ.

Table 3
Sources of Job Satisfaction Reported on the MSQ

Source	Mean n = 686	SD
Social service (chance to help others)	22.24	2.52
Activity (chance to keep busy)	21.16	2.80
Creativity	21.15	3.49
Moral values (not violating them)	20.91	2.79
Variety (of duties)	20.89	2.70
Ability utilization	20.88	3.64
Achievement	20.80	2.83
Responsibility	20.35	2.78
Independence	19.44	3.33
Co-workers	19.24	3.62
Supervision--human relations	19.08	4.93
Security (job)	18.73	4.03
Authority	17.88	2.86
Working conditions	17.78	2.86
Recognition	17.66	4.47
Social status	17.33	3.33
Supervision--technical	17.31	4.73
School policies and practices	16.96	4.26
Compensation	15.32	4.96

Table 4
The 10 Most Satisfying Aspects of School Counseling Listed by the Counselors

Satisfying aspect	n	% of Sample
Relationship with students	506	75.00
Achievement	480	71.10
Ability utilization	331	49.00
Relationship with parents	215	31.90
Relationship with teachers	207	30.70
Variety	187	27.70
Service to others	185	27.40
Autonomy	133	19.70
Relationship with prin./administrs.	107	15.90
Working hours	106	15.70

Research Question 3

The third research question was as follows: Are there differences in the sources of job satisfaction, reported on the MSQ, among school counselors in the elementary, middle/junior, and senior high schools?

For each scale on the MSQ, a one-way ANOVA was computed to determine if there were any differences in the scale means for the school counselors at the three levels. The following F values were obtained for each scale:

1. Ability utilization ($F = 1.98$, $p \leq .140$)
2. Achievement ($F = 2.00$, $p \leq .136$)
3. Activity ($F = 1.62$, $p \leq .200$)
4. Advancement ($F = 1.60$, $p \leq .210$)
5. Authority ($F = 2.92$, $p \leq .055$)
6. School policies and practices ($F = 9.51$, $p \leq .001$)
7. Compensation ($F = 1.51$, $p \leq .221$)
8. Co-workers ($F = 6.73$, $p \leq .001$)
9. Creativity ($F = 12.91$, $p \leq .001$)
10. Independence ($F = 2.05$, $p \leq .130$)
11. Moral values ($F = 1.30$, $p \leq .276$)
12. Recognition ($F = 4.46$, $p \leq .05$)
13. Responsibility ($F = 7.42$, $p \leq .001$)
14. Security ($F = 1.71$, $p \leq .181$)

15. Social service ($F = 0.33$, $p \leq .722$)
16. Social staus ($F = 2.71$, $p \leq .067$)
17. Supervision--human relations ($F = 17.03$, $p \leq .001$)
18. Supervision--technical ($F = 6.6$, $p \leq .01$)
19. Variety ($F = 3.00$, $p \leq .052$)
20. Working conditions ($F = 0.41$, $p \leq .662$)

The means of seven of these scales were significantly different at the .05 level or above and source data for the analyses of these means are presented as Table 5. The seven scales that had significant means were school policies and practices, co-workers, creativity, recognition, responsibility, supervision--human relations and technical. It was concluded that there were differences in the sources of job satisfaction for the school counselors at the elementary, middle/junior and senior high school. Post hoc analyses were then conducted to learn more about the differences.

Duncan's Multiple Range test was used to determine how the group means of the seven significant scales differed. A review of the data in Table 6 indicated that on all but one scale, co-worker, the means for the high school counselors were significantly lower ($p \leq .05$) than those of the school counselors at the other two levels. On the co-worker scale, the mean for the high school counselors was significantly lower ($p \leq .05$) than that of the elementary school counselors but not significantly different from that of the middle/junior high school counselors.

Table 5
Source Tables for Analyses of School Level Differences on Seven MSQ Scales

Source	DF	SS	MS	F
School policies and practices				
Between groups	2	342.76	171.38	9.51***
Within groups	603	10866.65	18.02	
Co-workers				
Between groups	2	172.49	86.24	6.73***
Within groups	604	7743.34	12.82	
Creativity				
Between groups	2	316.34	158.17	12.91***
Within groups	602	7376.84	12.25	
Recognition				
Between groups	2	177.61	88.81	4.46*
Within groups	603	12002.08	19.90	
Responsibility				
Between groups	2	116.11	58.05	7.42***
Within groups	595	4654.11	7.82	
Supervision--human relations				
Between groups	2	790.46	395.23	17.03***
Within groups	606	14068.28	23.22	
Supervision--technical				
Between groups	2	290.09	145.05	6.60**
Within groups	599	13164.78	21.98	

*$p \leq .05$ **$p \leq .01$ ***$p \leq .001$

Table 6
Means of the Seven Significant MSQ Scales with Respect to School Levels

Scale	Level of School		
	Elem.	Jr. high	Snr. high
School policies	17.74	17.57	16.17
Co-workers	19.94	19.39	18.72
Creativity	22.03	21.32	20.39
Recognition	18.19	17.96	17.02
Responsibility	20.86	20.50	19.87
Supervsn--hum. rel.	20.43	19.70	17.91
Supervsn--technical	18.07	17.90	16.61

Note. Means not underlined are significantly different at $p \leq .05$.

It was therefore concluded that when compared with high school counselors, elementary and middle/junior high school counselors experienced higher levels of job satisfaction in the areas of school policies, creativity, recognition, responsibility, and supervision--human relations and technical. Additionally, both the middle/junior and senior high school counselors were less satisfied with their teacher co-workers than the elementary school counselors.

As a counterpoint to the third research question, a frequency distribution of the school counselors' responses to the most dissatisfying aspects of their job, was constructed. The data in Table 7 are a comparison of the 10

dissatisfying factors that were most frequently reported by the school counselors at the three levels. It was surmised that counselors, especially in the higher levels, were dissatisfied with the volume of paperwork and nonprofessional duties (e.g., hall duty, discipline, and bus duty) that they were expected to perform as 73.2% of the middle/junior high school counselors and 69.9% of the high school counselors reported dissatisfaction in this area while 45.4% of the elementary school counselors did the same. Other concerns among the school counselors included (a) role overload due to the heavy workload and high counselor-student ratios, especially in the elementary schools; (b) role ambiguity due to unclear expectations, especially at the high school level; and (c) uncooperative/ insensitive principals/administrators, especially at the high school level.

Although the school counselors reported moderate levels of job satisfaction, it was determined that school counselors at the elementary, middle/junior and senior high schools experienced different levels of saatisfaction. In the areas of school policies, creativity, recognition, responsibility, and supervision--human relations and technical senior high school counselors were less satisfied than school counselors at the elementary and middle/junior high schools. Additionally, middle/junior and senior high school counselors were less satisfied with their teachers as co-workers than were the elementary school counselors.

Table 7
A Comparison of the 10 Most Dissatisfying Aspects of School Counseling As Reported by Counselors at Each School Level

Dissatisfying aspect	Percentage of Sample			
	Elem. n = 183	Middle n = 123	High n = 286	Total n = 592
Paperwork	45.4	73.2	69.9	63.0
Nonprof. work	30.1	57.7	49.0	44.9
Heavy wrkload.	49.7	30.9	36.0	39.2
Uncooperative principal	25.7	26.8	29.4	27.7
Unclear expectn.	17.5	21.1	24.5	21.6
Personal failure	18.0	18.7	14.3	16.4
Uncooperative parents	15.3	13.0	16.8	15.5
Testing	13.1	17.1	16.1	15.4
Wking. Cond.	30.1	8.9	5.9	14.0
Couns-stud ratio	18.0	11.4	11.5	13.5

Research Question 4

The fourth research question was as follows: Is there a relationship between school counselors' ages and their overall level of job satisfaction as reported on the MSQ?

Hoppock (1935) found that there was a positive relationship between age and job satisfaction. To determine if this held true for the respondents in this study, a Pearson correlation was calculated. The relationship was significant ($p \leq .05$) but very small with $r = .09$. This finding is consistent with Hoppock's; however, it should be regarded tentatively since the relationship is so small.

Research Question 5

The fifth research question was as follows: Is there a relationship between the school counselors' overall level of job satisfaction and their monthly salaries?

A Pearson correlation was calculated and no significant relationship ($p = .47$) between job satisfaction and salary was found. This observation contradicts that of Hackman and Lawler (1971) who found a significant correlation between job satisfaction and pay. However, it was mentioned earlier that the school counselors in this study tended to be satisfied by more intrinsic factors than extrinsic factors. Salary is an extrinsic factor and so it is plausible that salary is not a big factor in school counselors' job satisfaction.

Research Question 6

The sixth research question was as follows: Can the overall job satisfaction of school counselors be predicted from the level of school in which the counselor is employed, sex, degree level, setting of counselor's school, control of counselor's school, level of involvement in the ASCA at the national level, level of involvement in the ASCA at the state/regional level, and the number of professional memberships held by each school counselor?

To answer to this question, the data were analyzed with a stepwise multiple regression technique. Of the eight possible steps, only the first seven were significant. The summary of the regression analysis is presented in

Table 8. These seven factors were sex, involvement in the ASCA at the national level, number of professional memberships, control of school, involvement in the ASCA at the state/regional level, school level, and degree level; however, these factors were not good predictors of job satisfaction as together, they only accounted for 2% (r^2 = .022) of the variance in job satisfaction. Overall, only two of the seven factors were significant ($p \leq .05$) predictors of job satisfaction. These were sex (which accounted for 1% of the variance) and the number of professional memberships held by the school counselor (which accounted for 0.8% of the variance).

Table 8
Multiple Regression Summary of Job Satisfaction Variables

Source	DF	SS	MS	F
Regression	7	1296.48	185.21	2.01*
Residual	618	56976.36	92.19	

Predictor	R	Beta Wt.	r^2	Std. Error	F
Sex	.102	.091	.010	.84	4.91**
Involvement in ASCA at nat. level	.120	.055	.014	2.45	1.66
No. of prof. memberships	.130	.071	.018	.194	2.95**
Control of sch.	.144	.052	.021	1.45	1.62
Involvement in ASCA at state/reg. level	.147	.030	.022	1.11	.46
School level	.148	-.025	.022	.33	.33
Degree level	.149	-.014	.022	.74	.13

*$p \leq .05$ **$p \leq .01$

Although sex and the number of professional memberships held by each school counselors were significant predictors of job satisfaction, they were not strong predictors and so do not contribute much the the understanding of job satisfaction among school counselors.

Research Question 7

The seventh research question was as follows: Can the overall job satisfaction of school counselors be predicted from occupational tenure, job tenure, the counselor-student ratio in the school, the weekly percentage of time spent on each of their regular duties, degree of job challenge reported by the school counselors, their perception of the adequacy of their training, and the degree to which the profession meets their expectations?

In answering this question, a stepwise multiple regression analysis was also used and all factors except percentage of time spent on group counseling, consultation with teachers and administrators, and test administration and interpretation contributed significantly ($p \leq .05$) to the analysis. Located in Table 9 is the summary for the analysis of factors that contributed significantly to the multiple regression analysis.

Examination of the data presented in Table 9 revealed that the combined factors were fairly good predictors of job satisfaction as they accounted for 23% ($r^2 = .227$) of the variance in job satisfaction. Of the 16 factors that loaded into the regression analysis, the following proved to be

significant ($p \leq .05$) predictors of job satisfaction: (a) job expectations, which accounted for 14.6% of the variance; (b) job challenge, which accounted for 4.2% of the variance; (c) percentage of time helping students with schedules, which accounted for 0.7% of the variance; (d) adequacy of training, which accounted for 0.5% of the variance; (e) percentage of time maintaining cumulative records, which accounted for 0.4% of the variance; (f) percentage of time spent on special education referrals and placement, which accounted for 0.4% of the variance; (g) percentage of time spent in individual guidance, which accounted for 0.4% of the variance; (h) percentage of time spent on individual personal counseling, which accounted for 0.4% of the variance; (i) counselor-student ratios, which accounted for 0.2% of the variance; (j) percentage of time consulting with parents, which accounted for 0.4% of the variance; and (k) percentage of time spent in individual career counseling, which accounted for 0.1% of the variance.

The strongest predictors of job satisfaction among the school counselors were the degree to which the job met their expectations and the amount of challenge their jobs offered as together, these factors accounted for 18% of the 23% of variance in the school counselors' job satisfaction.

Summary

After reviewing the data in this study, it was concluded that the school counselors in the nation were

Table 9
Multiple Regression Summary of Role Related Variables

Source	DF	SS	MS	F
Regression	16	11080.55	692.53	9.77*
Residual	532	37714.00	70.90	

Predictor	R	B WT.	r^2	STD. ERROR	F
Job expectation	.381	-.298	.146	.429	52.98*
Job challenge	.434	-.180	.188	.656	10.21*
% of time helping studs. with sched.	.442	-.076	.195	.039	2.99*
Adequacy of trng.	.447	-.070	.200	.392	3.01*
% of time maint. cum records	.451	-.093	.204	.062	4.85*
% of time on spec. ed. ref. & plcmt.	.456	.061	.208	.045	2.18*
% of time on indiv. guid.	.461	.074	.212	.034	3.40*
% of time on indiv. pers. counslg.	.464	.057	.216	.024	1.96**
Counslr.-stud. ratio	.467	-.058	.218	.001	2.04*
% of time consult. with parents	.471	.056	.222	.067	1.97**
% of time in career grp. counslg.	.472	.057	.223	.064	1.86**
% of time in ind. career counslg.	.474	-.044	.224	.043	1.00
% of time in grp. guid.	.475	.020	.225	.022	0.49
Job tenure	.475	.062	.225	.087	1.04
Occupational tenure	.476	-.062	.227	.078	1.02
% of time on other duties	.477	.016	.227	.031	0.1

*$p \leq .05$ **$p \leq .01$

moderately satisfied and that the sources of this satisfaction were mostly intrinsic factors like serving/working with others and achievement. It was also found that school counselors at the elementary, middle/junior, and senior high schools were, for the most part satisfied by the same sources but in areas like school policies and

practices, recognition, and supervision--human relations, high school counselors were less satisfied than school counselors at the other two levels.

Data analyses also revealed that there was a small positive relationship ($r = .09$) between the school counselors' ages and their job satisfaction but none existed between their monthly salaries and job satisfaction. Additionally, it was observed that role related factors like school counselors' job expectations and job challenge can be significant predictors of job satisfaction. Some of these findings support previous research but some contradict others and these similarities and contrasts are discussed in Chapter V.

CHAPTER V
SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

In a recent report of the College Board, school counselors were deemed as essential to the educational system and very influential in young peoples' lives (Keegan, 1986). However, authors, like Wells and Ritter (1979), have indicated that school counselors are dissatisfied with their jobs and are resultantly ineffective. Since there has not been much empirical evidence to support the claim, this study was undertaken to not only learn about the level of satisfaction among school counselors but also explore the contributing factors to this satisfaction.

To learn more about job satisfaction among school counselors, a job satisfaction survey consisting of a personal and employment data section (PEDS) and the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ), was mailed to 1500 members of the American School Counselor Association. The findings discussed here are based on a final sample of 686 school counselors. Seven research questions were raised pertaining to (a) the overall level of job satisfaction; (b) the sources of job satisfaction and variations across school levels; (c) relationships between age and salary and job satisfaction; and (d) predictions of job satisfaction based on personal, demographic, and job related factors.

It was found that

1. Overall, the school counselors were moderately satisfied with their jobs.

2. Factors that contributed to this satisfaction included good relationships with students, a sense of achievement, helping others, being able to keep busy, ability utilization, and creativity.

3. For the most part, counselors in the elementary, middle/junior, and senior high schools were satisfied by the same sources. However, elementary and middle/junior high school counselors were more satisfied than high school counselors with their school policies, opportunities for creativity, recognition, responsibility, and supervision--human relations and technical. Additionally, the school counselors did have some concerns that related to role conflict, ambiguity, and overload.

4. There was a very weak but significant positive relationship between school counselors' ages and job satisfaction.

5. There was no significant relationship between monthly salary and job satisfaction.

6. The number of professional memberships, job expectations, school counselors' perception of the adequacy of their training, and time spent on various duties were predictors of job satisfaction.

The findings of this study both supported some earlier studies and differed from some others. These similarities and differences are discussed in the next section in regard

to the school counselors, theory of work adjustment, and job satisfaction research. Following this is a discussion of the limitations and implications of the study as well as some conclusions drawn from the study.

Discussion of Results

School Counselors

Although the school counselors reported a moderate level of job satisfaction on the general scale of the MSQ, it was determined that several factors were threatening their satisfaction. The factors discussed here concern (a) the lack of full professional status, (b) inadequacy of school counselor training, and (c) the effect of unmet expectations.

Professional status. Proponents of the view that school counselors are dissatisfied often argue that one reason for this is the fact that school counselors are occupied with a preponderance of nonprofessional duties, which Aubrey (1982) argued could be accomplished by computers and lesser paid personnel. The school counselors in this survey did indicate that noncounseling duties were a source of irritation, as they listed paperwork and nonprofessional duties among the most dissatisfying aspects of the job. Additionally, it was determined that the percentage of time helping students with schedules and maintaining cumulative records was negatively related to job satisfaction.

However, after further examination of the data it was hypothesized that not only is overload of paperwork and nonprofessional duties a problem but role conflicts and ambiguity are also the main contributors to lower levels of job satisfaction among the school counselors. These problems, according to Caplow (1966), are typical of occupational groups that have not fully attained the final stage of professionalization for it is at this stage that the group forges and delineates its role through political and public activism thus eliminating opportunities for role conflicts and ambiguity. The medium for such activism is the professional organization, which for school counselors is the American School Counselor Association. Therefore, it seems that as school counselors try to solve their preprofessionalization problems, they will need to work more closely with the American School Counselor Association. With more school counselors supporting the association, this will ensure that the association has the vitality it needs to clarify the role and mission of school counselors to the public.

Inadequacy of school counselor training. Another reason for school counselors' attitudes to their jobs was suggested by Day and Sparacio (1980), who believed that inadequate and unrealistic training of school counselors resulted in high levels of job dissatisfaction. In this study, it was found that there was a positive relationship between school counselors' perception of the adequacy of their training and their job satisfaction and this seems to

give credence to Day and Sparacio's belief. To clarify their position, many school counselors volunteered the information that they felt versed in theory but not in the applications of the theory. Therefore, they felt the need for in-service training to develop skills to correct this deficiency and/or to learn ways of handling emerging problems like physical and drug abuse.

Effect of unmet expectations. In addition to inadequate training, Boy and Pine (1980) implied that unrealistic expectations could be affecting the school counselors' attitudes to their jobs. This suggestion seems to be supported by this survey as job expectations, when met or surpassed, were very strong predictors of job satisfaction. It appears that the more closely the job approximated the school counselors' expectations, the greater was their satisfaction. Therefore, prior to selecting this vocation, prospective school counselors need to develop a realistic picture of the roles entailed in the profession and set their expectations accordingly.

Theory of Work Adjustment

Job satisfaction, according to the theory of work adjustment (Dawis & Lofquist, 1984), is the result of the work environment meeting the needs of its workers. A manifestation of this satisfaction is tenure--both job and occupational. In this study, it was determined that there was no direct relationship between job satisfaction and

occupational tenure in that, although the school counselors indicated a moderate satisfaction with their jobs, 58% of a total of 686 school counselors stated that they intended to remain in school counseling until retirement. This suggests a potentially high turnover rate or lack of occupational tenure among the school counselors. In addition, job and occupational tenure were not found to be significant predictors of job satisfaction in this study. Perhaps the incongruency between the school counselors' job satisfaction and tenure is rooted in the fact that the source of the most dissatisfaction for school counselors--nonprofessional duties--was listed on the school counselors' self report but not measured by the MSQ. It seems plausible to conclude that if the MSQ had been designed to measure specific occupational concerns, the satisfaction scores may have been lower and hence there might have been more consistency between low satisfaction and low tenure.

Perhaps another reason for the determination of a lack of congruence between job satisfaction and tenure is the limited focus of the theory of work adjustment. The theory is limited in scope in that Dawis and Lofquist (1984) only address the issue of employees' needs. It would seem that a more comprehensive theory would better explain job satisfaction and tenure than the narrowly focused theory of work adjustment.

Job Satisfaction Research

Researchers have identified several factors that affect job satisfaction and most of these factors have been incorporated into the needs list of the theory of work adjustment (Dawis & Lofquist, 1984). Since support for the theory of job satisfaction was previously addressed, these factors are not discussed in this section. The factors that are discussed here are educational level and sex. Additionally, the applicability of the M-H theory and person-environment congruency model is considered.

Educational level. The impact of educational level was investigated by Weaver (1980) as well as Quinn and Mandilovitch (1980), who reported a positive relationship between job satisfaction and educational level. This observation is contradicted by the results of this study as educational level was not a significant predictor of job satisfaction. Perhaps the difference in observations can be attributed to the fact that the other studies were conducted with several different occupational groups while the present study only dealt with one group with a limited range of educational differences.

Sex There is some controversey as to whether or not the sex of the employees is a moderating factor in job satisfaction. For example, Weaver (1980) reported that there was no relationship between sex and job satisfaction but this has been countered by Varca, Shaffer, and McCauley (1983) who added that this effect was more evident among people in the higher educational levels. In this study, it

was found that the female school counselors tended to be more satisfied than the male school counselors thus supporting the hypothesis of Varca, Shaffer, and McCauley. There is a myriad of possible explanations for this observation, one of which is the possibility that the men felt somewhat uncomfortable in a traditionally female-dominated occupation. Further research is necessary to elucidate this relationship.

Job satisfaction theories. Several researchers have developed theories in attempts to account for the sources of job satisfaction. Among these was Herzberg, who developed the M-H theory of job satisfaction. According to Herzberg (1966), different factors account for job satisfaction and dissatisfaction. However, this was not found to be the case in the present study for in several cases, the same factors were listed as sources of satisfaction and dissatisfaction. For example, relationships with supervisors/principals and co-workers/teachers were listed not only as sources of satisfaction but also as sources of dissatisfaction. Based on these observations it was surmised that job satisfaction and dissatisfaction are not on two separate continua, as suggested by Herzberg, but on one continuum as suggested by Hoppock (1935).

Although job satisfaction/dissatisfaction may be on a continuum, both conditions are mediated by many variables that interact. Any theorist that seeks to predict and explain job satisfaction, must allow for this

interaction and be encompassing. One such potential model is the person-environment congruency model described by Klein and Wiener (1977). In this model, the interaction between personality variables (e.g., needs, expectations, abilities, and interests) and job variables (e.g., supervisors, co-workers, and challenge) is considered and so seems to be more useful than any one theory in the study job satisfaction.

Limitations

Although this study was designed to present a comprehensive national index of job satisfaction among school counselorsin the American School Counselor Association, several factors could affect the generalizability of the results. These factors include the sample chosen, research method, survey instrument, time of survey, and determination of school level.

For practical reasons, it was decided to survey a sample of the ASCA's members. The constitution of the sample may have biased the results as non-ASCA members may differ in attitudes from the ASCA members. Additionally, it is not known what proportion of the school counselor population is enrolled in the ASCA and so, the results may not be representative of the entire school counselor population. Therefore, caution should be exercised in interpreting the results described here.

As is the case with most survey research conducted by mail, some questionnaires were not returned, despite

efforts to encourage all school counselors to respond. It is conceivable that the results of this research could have been different were all surveys returned. In light of this, all observations made and conclusions drawn from this study are done with reservations.

A concern associated with the use of the long form of the MSQ, is the fact that the instrument tends to be repetitious and several respondents complained about this. There were also several school counselors who indicated that they did not complete the MSQ for this reason. It was deemed necessary to use the long form of the MSQ so as to obtain more reliable data. However, it is possible that this goal may not have been achieved as respondents could have become bored or careless in responding to the instrument and so the data presented in the study may not be truly indicative of the school counselors' attitudes to their jobs.

The survey, which is the basis of this study, was conducted in March 1986 and, although it was close to the beginning of the calendar year, it was close to the end of the school year and so some school counselors may have been too busy to complete the survey, thus causing a depression in response rate. Additionally, school counselors may have been physically and emotionally drained by the activities of the school year and so answered differently than they would have were it the beginning of the school year. These points need to be considered as conclusions and generalizations are developed from the study.

In this study, the school levels were determined by the school counselors and it was observed that there was an overlap in the beginning and ending grades of the elementary, middle/junior, and senior high schools across the country. The comparisons of the school counselors at the various levels may have been different were the boundaries of the three school levels exclusive. Therefore, conclusions about the counselors at the three school levels are made tentatively.

Implications

Information from this study can be used for career counseling, school counselor training, developing goals for the ASCA, and generating additional research. Each of these uses is discussed in this section.

Career Counseling

As clients explore career options, career counselors need to have their clients look at not only interests and abilities but also expectations and needs. If a client were interested in becoming a school counselor, the career counselor can help the client to match his/her personal needs (e.g. social service, creativity, acheivement, and recognition) against those of the school counselors in this study. If there is no complementary match, the client ought to be cautioned about entering the profession as the client may not derive satisfaction from the job were he/she to enter school counseling. It is also important for the

client to consider the level school in which he/she should practice since school counselors at the elementary, middle/junior, and senior high schools do experience different levels of job satisfaction.

School Counselor Training

In this study, it was found that the school counselors' perception of the adequacy of their training can moderate their job satisfaction. This observation is important to counselor educators as they need to design curricula that will realistically prepare graduates for their jobs. It is true that counselor education departments have responded to the call for better training by offering a wider selection of courses and programs (Wantz, Shcherman, & Hollis, 1982) as well as adopting competency-based curricula (Ibrahim & Thompson, 1983). However, it is wise to heed the words of Pipes and Buckhalt (1983) who have cautioned that adding courses without research into school counselors' real needs can be self-defeating. Therefore, it is suggested that before adding courses, counselor educators should get input from practicing school counselors through needs assessment surveys and other similar tools.

However, counselor educators should not limit their work to trainees but should extend their services to practicing school counselors. To enhance the job satisfaction of school counselors, educators could implement continuing education courses as many school counselors do

feel the need for in-service training to develop personal and professional skills. This in-service training could be of mutual benefit to school counselors and counselor educators, in that school counselors would feel renewed from having their skills and knowledge updated and upgraded. In turn, counselor educators would gain more insights into the concerns of school counselors and this would help them to prepare trainees more realistically and perhaps stimulate some research ideas.

American School Counselor Association

In addition to their need for continuing education, practicing school counselors also feel the need for role clarification. It is true that the ASCA has published role statements but there does seem to be a discrepancy between the actual practice of school counselors and the role statements. Perhaps this discrepancy could help account for the potentially high turnover rate among school counselors. Therefore, much effort needs to be expended by the ASCA to prevent a high turnover rate among the school counselors.

One step that the ASCA can take is to recruit more school counselors into its membership. The old adage, "united we stand, divided we fall," seems to apply here since the ASCA will not be extremely effective at the local, regional, and/or national levels unless it has the force of a large united body of school counselors.

Another step that the ASCA can take is to work more closely with the principals, school boards, and education

departments of the various states to ensure that the school counselors' practice is consistent with their training. Just as brain surgeons are not expected to perform appendectomies, tonsilectomies, and/or hysterectomies, so should school counselors not be expected to do jobs like course registration, bus duty, discipline, and maintaining cumulative records. It is true that the ASCA has been lobbying for changes but this action needs to be intensified and as the ASCA increases its watchdog stance, more school counselors will be encouraged to join the association.

In addition to being more involved with school counselors and employers, the ASCA could also work with counselor educators to help design their graduate and continuing education curricula. This would help to ensure that school counselors receive realistic and high quality training. An effective way of meeting this goal is for the ASCA to constantly give input to the Council for Accreditation of Counseling and Related Educational Programs (CACREP). CACREP is an independent council that was developed by The American Association for Counseling and Development "to implement the standards of the counseling profession in preparation programs" ("Archival Feature," 1986). It is important that the quality of school counselor training be monitored but it is more important that this training be grounded in realism.

Research

Much has been written about the high level of job dissatisfaction among school counselors but often without empirical evidence. While the results of this study seem to indicate that overall, school counselors are satisfied with their jobs, there is also evidence that there is a low level of occupational tenure among this group. This differs from the notions of Dawis and Lofquist (1984) as expressed in their theory of work adjustment. Therefore, it seems that the relationship between job satisfaction and tenure needs to be more clearly defined through research.

Another area in which follow-up research is indicated is the difference in satisfaction levels among school counselors at the elementary, middle/junior, and senior high schools. Perhaps this is attributable to the fact that high school counseling was in existence for approximately 50 years prior to the introduction of elementary and middle/ junior high school counseling and so school counselors in the lower levels are experiencing a "honeymoon" period. If this is so, the findings of this study may be spurious and so follow-up studies need to be conducted in ensuing years to determine if there really are differences in the sources and levels of job satisfaction among school counselors at the various school levels.

In addition to school level differences, it was found that job satisfaction was related to the number of professional memberships held by the school counselor in that job satisfaction was greater among school counselors

who held memberships in several professional organizations. If this is so, the results of this study may have been different if the school counselors, who were polled, were nonmembers of any professional organization. Therefore, to produce a comparison for the results in this study, it would be instructive to conduct a similar study among nonmembers of the ASCA.

Conclusions

When considering all the data presented in this study, several conclusions can be made concerning job satisfaction among the school counselors studied. Contrary to the popular notion, there is not a high level of dissatisfaction among school counselors but rather a moderate level of job satisfaction among the group. Counselors in the high schools seem to experience lower job satisfaction than those in the elementary or middle/junior high schools. However, overall, the school counselors enjoy working with their young population and experience a sense of fulfillment when they see their counselees become responsible and successful citizens.

The information gleaned from both the PEDS and the MSQ seems to indicate that school counselors are not unlike other professional groups, in that, they are satisfied when their needs for achievement, creativity, good co-worker relationships, and so forth are met. However, their sources of satisfaction are more intrinsic factors like service to

others, rather than extrinsic factors like pay. In an age of materialism, it is commendable to find people who sincerely care about others' well-being and it is obvious that the majority of school counselors in this study were caring individuals.

However, school counselors are in a tenuous position in that, as a group, they have not attained full professional status. This is evidenced by the fact that the legislators, principals/administrators, teachers, and parents do not have a clear perception of the school counselors role and so, the school counselors are often assigned noncounseling tasks. The result of this is low occupational tenure and this could spell doom for the profession. If the school counselors, through the ASCA, work with the legislators, supervisors, teachers, and parents to reconcile their differences in job expectations, it is plausible that a successful resolution of the problem can be achieved.

Other people that can be helpful in promoting job satisfaction among school counselors are the counselor educators. As a service to their trainees, counselor educators should revise their curricula continuously to ensure that the theoretical content is current and the practical experiences are realistic approximations of "real life" school counseling. Perhaps this may mean longer training requirements for some programs but this is justified if school counselors are better equipped for their jobs. Once training is complete, practicing school

counselors need continuing education to renew, upgrade, and reinforce their skills. Here, further research into the educational needs and preparation of school counselors could prove insightful.

In addition to continuous educational needs assessment among school counselors, job satisfaction research is necessary, in order to promote satisfaction among the group. However, it may be more instructive to use a profession specific instrument rather than a generic one for such research. This is based on the results of a comparison of the data generated by the PEDS and the MSQ in that both generated very similar information but the PEDS was able to tap some information that was not contained in the MSQ.

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BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH

Georgiene B.E. Morgan, daughter of St. Elmo Reid and the late Alcinda Reid, was born in St. Catherine, Jamaica, on April 23, 1957. She has one sister, Yolette, and two brothers, Fitzmurray and Ives. On graduating from Wolmer's Girls High school in Kingston, Jamaica, she entered Trinity College in Deerfield, Illinois, and later graduated magna cum laude with a B.A. in psychology. In 1981, she earned a M.S. in counseling and guidance from the University of Wisconsin.

Ms. Morgan is married to Cecil L. Morgan and they have one daughter, Jolande. Together, they reside in Boca Raton, Florida, where Georgiene works as a counselor with Palm Beach County's Youth Service Bureau.

I certify that I have read this study and that in my opinion it conforms to acceptable standards of scholarly presentation and is fully adequate, in scope and quality, as a dissertation for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

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Associate Professor of Counselor Education

I certify that I have read this study and that in my opinion it conforms to acceptable standards of scholarly presentation and is fully adequate, in scope and quality, as a dissertation for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

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I certify that I have read this study and that in my opinion it conforms to acceptable standards of scholarly presentation and is fully adequate, in scope and quality, as a dissertation for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

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